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PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIFTH ANNIVERSARY
— OF THE
UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION
— OF THE
STATE OF NEW YORK,

Held August 4th, 5th and 6th, 1868.

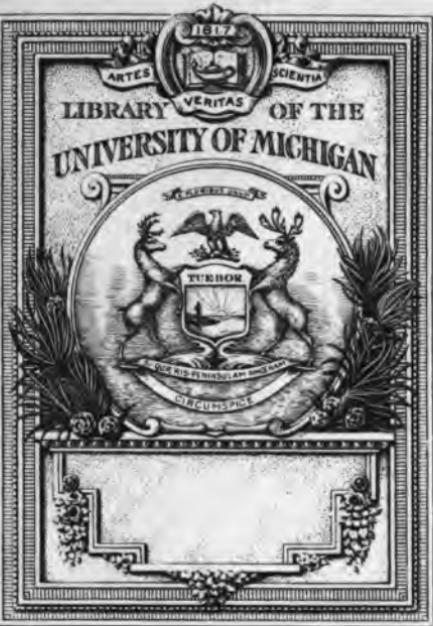
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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

FIFTH ANNIVERSARY

OF THE

UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION

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STATE OF NEW YORK,

Held August 4th, 5th and 6th, 1868.

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THE UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION

OF THE

STATE OF NEW YORK.

I. Sketch of its Origin, Objects and Plan.

At a meeting of the Regents of the University, held on the 9th day of January, 1863, the reports of colleges and academies, and their mutual relations, being under consideration, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That it is expedient to hold annually, under the direction of this Board, a meeting of officers of colleges and academies, and that a committee be appointed to draft a programme of business for the proposed meeting, to fix the time and place, and to make such other arrangements as they may deem necessary.

The committee of arrangements on the part of the Regents were, Chancellor Pruyn, Governor Seymour, Mr. Benedict, Mr. Hawley, Mr. Clinton, Mr. Perkins, and Secretary Woolworth.

The meeting was held, according to appointment, on the 4th and 5th days of August, 1863. Chancellor Pruyn briefly stated the objects entertained by the Regents, which were mainly "to consider the mutual relations of colleges and academies, and to promote, as largely as possible, the cause of liberal education in our State. While it is a part of the duty of the Regents of the University to visit the fourteen colleges and more than two hundred academies subject to their supervision, it is obvious that this cannot be done as frequently as desirable, and that some such method as is now proposed, whereby teachers may compare views with each other and with the Regents, discuss methods of instruction and general modes of procedure, is alike practicable and necessary.

"A law enacted more than three-fourths of a century ago was cited, by which the University was organized and clothed with powers similar to those held by the Universities of Cambridge and

Oxford in England. The University of the State of New York, though generally regarded as a legal fiction, is in truth a grand reality. The numerous institutions of which it is composed are not, indeed, as in England, crowded into a single city, but are scattered, for popular convenience, over the entire State. It is hoped that the present meeting will more fully develop this fact, in accordance with which the officers of colleges and academies now convened are cordially welcomed as members of a great State University. It is also confidently expected that the deliberations now inaugurated will result in the more intimate alliance and coöperation of the various institutions holding chartered rights under the Regents of the University."

The Chancellor and Secretary of the Regents, were, on motion, duly elected presiding and recording officers of the meeting. A committee, subsequently made permanent for the year, and designated as the executive committee, was appointed by the Chancellor to prepare and report an order of proceedings. Among other recommendations of the committee the following were submitted and unanimously adopted:

The Regents of the University of this State have called the present meeting of the officers of the colleges and academies subject to their visitation, for the purpose of mutual consultation respecting the cause of education, especially in the higher departments. It becomes a question of interest whether this convention shall assume a permanent form, and meet at stated intervals, either annually, biennially or triennially. In the opinion of the committee, it seems eminently desirable that the Regents and the instructors in the colleges and academies should thus meet, with reference to the attainment of the following objects :

- 1st. To secure a better acquaintance among those engaged in these departments of instruction, with each other, and with the Regents.
- 2d. To secure an interchange of opinions on the best methods of instruction in both colleges and academies ; and, as a consequence,
- 3d. To advance the standard of education throughout the State.
- 4th. To adopt such common rules as may seem best fitted to promote the harmonious workings of the State system of education.
- 5th. To consult and co-operate with the Regents in devising and executing such plans of education as the advanced state of the population may demand.
- 6th. To exert a direct influence upon the people and the Legislature of the State, personally and through the press, so as to secure such an appreciation of a thorough system of education, together with such pecuniary aid and legislative enactments as will place the institutions here represented in a position worthy of the population and resources of the State.

And for the attainment of these objects, the committee recommend the adoption of the following resolutions :

Resolved, That this meeting of officers of colleges and academies be hereafter known and designated as "The University Convocation of the State of New York."

Resolved, That the members of this Convocation shall embrace,

1. The members of the Board of Regents.

2. All instructors in colleges, normal schools, academies, and higher departments of public schools that are subject to the visitation of the Regents, and (by amendment of 1868) the trustees of all such institutions.

3. The President, First Vice-President, and the Recording and Corresponding Secretaries of the New York State Teachers' Association.

Resolved, That the Chancellor and Secretary of the Board of Regents shall act severally as the Presiding Officer and Permanent Secretary of the Convocation.

Resolved, That the meeting of this Convocation shall be held annually in the city of Albany, on the first Tuesday of August, at ten o'clock A. M., unless otherwise appointed by the Board of Regents.

Resolved, That at each annual Convocation, the Chancellor shall announce the appointment, by the Regents, of an executive committee of seven members, who shall meet during the recess of the Convocation at such time and place as the Regents may direct, with authority to transact business connected with its general object.

At the fifth anniversary, held August 4th, 5th, and 6th, 1868, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That there be appointed by the Chancellor at each annual meeting, a committee of necrology, to consist of three persons.

Resolved, That it shall be the duty of each member of the Convocation to notify the chairman of the committee of necrology of the decease of members occurring in their immediate neighborhood or circle of acquaintance, as an assistance to the preparation of their report.

Resolved, That the Secretary publish, with the report of each year's proceedings, the original resolutions of 1863, as they are, or may be from time to time amended, together with the two foregoing, as a means of better informing the members of the Convocation in regard to its nature, and the purposes of its organization.

—————♦♦—————

II. Minutes of the Fifth Anniversary, August 4, 5 and 6, 1868.

The sessions of the fifth anniversary of the University Convocation of the State of New York were held at the Assembly Chamber of the Capitol, in the city of Albany, commencing on Tuesday, August 4th, 1868, at 10.30 A. M., and closing on Thursday, August 6th, at 12 o'clock, M.

The Convocation was called to order by Chancellor Pruyn, President, *ex-officio*.

Rev. Dr. Luckey led the Convocation in the use of the Lord's Prayer.

Vice-Chancellor Verplanck having been called by the Chancellor to occupy the chair, briefly addressed the Convocation,

and declared the session duly opened for the transaction of business.

The Executive Committee, through Acting-President Wilson, of Hobart College, reported the following order of exercises for the first day, and recommended its adoption :

ORDER OF EXERCISES.

Sessions (except the first), 9 A. M. to 1 P. M.; 3 to 5 P. M.; 8 P. M.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 4th.

10.30 A. M.—Opening of the Convocation, and preliminary report of the Executive Committee.

11.30 A. M.—Normal Instruction in Colleges; Professor EDWARD NORTH, *Hamilton College*.

12 M.—A suitable course of study and appropriate testimonials for females in the higher institutions of the State. [Reported upon at the last Convocation, report accepted, committee discharged, report ordered printed and further consideration of the subject referred to the next Convocation (1868).]

12.45 P. M.—Miscellaneous business.

1 P. M. RECESS.

3 P. M.—The Study of Politics in Colleges, Normal Schools and Academies; Professor JOHN NORTON POMEROY, *University of the City of New York*.

4 P. M.—Why should Elementary Chemistry be required for admission to College? Professor LE ROY C. COOLEY, *State Normal School*.

4.30 P. M.—Miscellaneous Business.

5 P. M. RECESS.

8 P. M.—Eulogy on the late Professor CHARLES ANTHON, LL.D.; Professor HENRY DRISLER, *Columbia College*.

The report of the committee was accepted, and adopted as the order of business for the day.

The Executive Committee also recommended the adoption of the following resolution :

Resolved, That the second paragraph of the resolution adopted in 1863, designating the members of the Convocation, be hereby amended by adding the words, "and the trustees of all such institutions," making such paragraph read as follows:

2. All instructors in colleges, Normal Schools, Academies, and higher departments of public schools that are subject to the visitation of the Regents, and the trustees of all such institutions.

The resolution was unanimously adopted.

The paper of Professor Edward North, of Hamilton College, on "Normal Instruction in Colleges," was read, in his absence and

at his request, by Assistant-Secretary Pratt. The paper was accompanied by the following resolution, which embodies the main thought of the author :

Resolved, That we think it desirable, and called for by the educational needs of the day, that each of the literary colleges of the State should organize and sustain a department of Normal instruction, under the direction of a competent Professor of "The Theory and Practice of Teaching."

The subject of Professor North's paper was discussed by Chancellor Pruyn; Regent Benedict; and Principal Flack, of Claverack Academy.

Regent Luckey moved that the subject be referred to a committee of five, to be named by the chair, to report at the next Convocation.

The discussion was continued by President Wilson; Principal Graves, of Oneida Conference Seminary; and Secretary Woolworth.

President Wilson seconded the motion of Regent Luckey, to refer the subject to a committee.

Secretary Woolworth announced the receipt of a telegram from President Raymond, of Vassar College, requesting that the discussion upon a suitable course of study for females in the higher institutions of learning, which had been made the order for twelve o'clock, be postponed, at least until the afternoon session, which was agreed to.

Discussion on Professor North's paper was continued by Principal Whipple, of Lansingburgh Academy; Regent Hale; Professor Martin, of the University of the City of New York; Principal Martin, of the Troy High School; Professor Robinson, of the University of Rochester; and Principal Clarke, of Canandaigua Academy.

The hour of adjournment having arrived, the Convocation took a recess until three o'clock P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION—THREE O'CLOCK.

Professor John Norton Pomeroy, of the University of the City of New York, read a paper on "The Study of Politics in Colleges, Academies and Normal Schools," (Regent Luckey in the chair.)

The subject of the paper was discussed by Chancellor Pruyn; Professor Upson, of Hamilton College; Secretary Woolworth; and Regent Benedict.

Professor Le Roy C. Cooley, of the State Normal School, read a paper entitled "Why should Elementary Chemistry be required for admission to College?"

Professor Martin spoke briefly on the subject of Professor Cooley's paper.

The motion of Regent Luckey, in regard to the appointment of a committee, to report next year, on the subject of Normal Instruction in Colleges, having been called up, was unanimously adopted.

The discussion of Professor Pomeroy's paper was resumed, in which President Wilson, Regent Wetmore, and Professors Martin and Lambert participated.

Secretary Woolworth read a letter from Professor North, of Hamilton College, suggesting the appointment of a delegation to represent the Convocation at the approaching session of the American Teachers' Association, to be held at Nashville, Tenn., commencing on the 19th instant.

On motion, the Chancellor was authorized to appoint delegations to the American Institute of Instruction, which meets at Pittsfield, Mass., on the 5th inst.; the American Teachers' Association, to be held as above stated; and the American Association for the Advancement of Science, now in session at Chicago, Ill.

The Chancellor appointed President Allen, and Principals Graves, Clarke and Flack, to fill vacancies in the Executive Committee, occasioned by the non-attendance of President Lindsay, Principals Higley and Gallup, and Professor Eaton.

The Executive Committee, as thus constituted for this session of the Convocation, consists of Acting-President Wilson, of Hobart College; President John H. Raymond, of Vassar College; President Allen, of Alfred University; Principals Whipple, of Lansingburgh Academy; Graves, of Oneida Conference Seminary; Clarke, of Canandaigua Academy; and Flack, of Claverack Academy.

The hour of adjournment having arrived, the Convocation took a recess until eight o'clock.

EVENING SESSION—EIGHT O'CLOCK.

Professor Henry Drisler, of Columbia College, read a Eulogy on the late Professor Charles Anthon, LL.D., (Superintendent Weaver in the chair.,

Vice-Chancellor Verplanck, Regent Benedict, and Secretary Woolworth, added reminiscences suggested by the eulogy and in further illustration of Professor Anthon's character.

On motion of Chancellor Pruyn, a vote of thanks to Professor Drisler, for his very able and interesting eulogy, was unanimously adopted.

President Wilson, on behalf of the Executive Committee, announced the proposed order of exercises for the second day.

On motion of Regent Wetmore, the subject "The Military Roll of Honor" was withdrawn from the place assigned to it by the Executive Committee, to be taken up under the head of miscellaneous business, at the close of the morning session.

The Convocation then adjourned to Wednesday morning, at nine o'clock.

Second Day.

MORNING SESSION—NINE O'CLOCK.

The session was opened with the usual devotional exercises, led by Rev. Dr. Goodwin.

President Wilson, in behalf of the Executive Committee, reported the following order of exercises for the day, which was adopted by the Convocation:

ORDER OF EXERCISES.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 5.

9 A. M.—Report of the Executive Committee.

9.30 A. M.—The Department of Mixed Mathematics in the College of the City of New York; Professor JOHN A. NICHOLS, *College of the City of New York*.

10.15 A. M.—Liberal Education for Women; President JOHN H. RAYMOND, *Vassar College*.

11.15 A. M.—A suitable course of study and appropriate testimonials for females in the higher institutions of the State. (Postponed yesterday.) [Reported upon at the last Convocation, report accepted, committee discharged, report ordered printed, and further consideration of the subject referred to the next Convocation (1868).]

12.45 P. M.—Report on the "Military Roll of Honor;" Professor ANSON J. UPSON, *Hamilton College*.

1 P. M.

RECESS.

College Section.

3 P. M.—Report on "Honorary Degrees;" President ANDREW D. WHITE, *Cornell University*.

4.30 P. M.—Report on "The advisableness of having the entrance examination

to college conducted in whole or in part by a special Board of Examiners to be appointed by the Regents;" President JOHN W. LINDSAY, *Genesee College*.

Academy Section.

3 P. M.—General Discussion of subjects connected with Academic Instruction.

5 P. M.

RECESS.

8 P. M.—Eulogy on the late Professor CHESTER DEWEY, LL.D.; President MARTIN B. ANDERSON, *University of Rochester*.

The following resolutions were also submitted by the Executive Committee, and were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That there be appointed by the Chancellor, at each annual meeting, a committee of necrology, to consist of three persons.

Resolved, That it shall be the duty of each member of the Convocation to notify the chairman of the committee of necrology of the decease of members occurring in their immediate neighborhood or circle of acquaintance, as an assistance to the preparation of their report.

Resolved, That the Secretary publish, with the report of each year's proceedings, the original resolutions of 1863, as they are, or may be from time to time amended, together with the two foregoing, as a means of better informing the members of the Convocation in regard to its nature and the purposes of its organization.

Professor John A. Nichols, of the College of the City of New York, read a paper entitled "The Department of Mixed Mathematics in the College of the City of New York."

The subject of the paper was discussed by President Wilson, Regents Goodwin and Perkins, Principals Snook and Whipple, Vice-Chancellor Verplanck, and Professor Robinson, of the University of Rochester.

President John H. Raymond, of Vassar College, read a paper on "Liberal education for Women," (Regent Benedict in the chair.)

An extended discussion ensued, in which Regents Luckey, Wetmore, Hale and Benedict, President Raymond, and Principals Graves, Flack, King, Diefendorf, and Mansfield took part.

On motion of Secretary Woolworth, President Cummings, of the Wesleyan University at Middletown, Conn., Professor Griffin, of Williams College, and Secretary White, of the Massachusetts Board of Education, being in attendance, were invited to participate in the discussions.

On motion of Principal Flack, the subject of President Raymond's paper, together with that of "A suitable course of study for females," next in order on the programme, was made a special order for half-past seven o'clock, this evening.

On motion of President Wilson, the third subject announced in the circular of June 15, 1868, to wit, "The Greek and Latin authors subsequent to the era of Christianity, a compilation from whose writings would be suitable to be read in colleges," was referred to the College Section for this afternoon.

Under the head of miscellaneous business, to which the report on "The Military Roll of Honor" had been referred, Professor Upson stated, in behalf of the committee, that they are not prepared to report at the present time, and suggested that the same committee be continued another year, which was, on motion of Regent Wetmore, unanimously agreed to.

The Convocation then took a recess until three o'clock, P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION—THREE O'CLOCK.

The Chancellor invited the members of the Convocation to meet him at the State Library, at the close of the evening session, for a social interview.

President Wilson stated that the reports of committees expected to be made at the proposed session of the College Section are understood not to be fully prepared, and he therefore proposed that the meeting of the College Section be dispensed with, and that such partial reports as may be in readiness, be submitted at the present time, which was agreed to.

President White, of Cornell University, in behalf of the committee on "Honorary Degrees," stated that the committee have had some informal discussion on this subject, but are not prepared to report in full, and respectfully ask leave to sit again.

A similar statement was made in behalf of the committee on the subject entitled "The advisableness of having the entrance examination to college conducted in whole or in part by a special Board of Examiners to be appointed by the Regents."

On motion, both these committees were continued for the ensuing year.

President Anderson, as chairman of the committee on "The Greek and Latin authors subsequent to the era of Christianity," made a brief statement, and moved that the committee be discharged from the further consideration of the subject, which was agreed to.

On motion of Professor Upson, it was directed that three members of the Academy Section be added to the committee on "The Military Roll of Honor."

A "general discussion of subjects connected with academic instruction" being next in order, on motion of Principal Flack, the academies represented were called upon to propose subjects for free discussion.

On motion of Principal Graves, the speakers were limited to five minutes each.

In response to the call, Principals Clarke, King, A. Flack, Diefendorf, Graves, Mansfield, Snook, R. C. Flack, Pease, Wright, Ward, Hovey, Curtiss, and Whipple, made statements and proposed inquiries with reference to the practical workings of the Regents' examination and the distribution of the Literature Fund. The several inquiries were answered by Secretary Woolworth, as far as the time and circumstances would permit.

The Chancellor announced the appointment of delegations to other associations, as follows:

American Institute of Instruction, Pittsfield:—President Wilson, of Hobart College; President Allen, of Alfred University; Professor Lambert, of Peekskill; Secretary Woolworth, of Albany; Principal Mansfield, of Rockland County Female Institute.

American Teachers' Association, Nashville:—Professor North, of Hamilton College; President French, of Potsdam Normal School; Principal Flack, of Claverack Academy; Professor Werner, of the College of the City of New York; Principal Clarke, of Canandaigua Academy; Professor Lee, of Buffalo Medical College.

American Association for the Advancement of Science, Chicago:—Chancellor Ferris, of the University of the City of New York; President Barnard, of Columbia College; Professor Hall, of Albany.

The Convocation then took a recess until half-past seven o'clock, P. M.

EVENING SESSION—HALF-PAST SEVEN O'CLOCK.

The special order, "A suitable course of study and appropriate testimonials for females in the higher institutions of the State," was taken up, and after remarks by Regent Benedict and Principal Flack, it was ordered that a committee of three be appointed to report a resolution on the subject to-morrow morning.

The Chancellor appointed Principal Flack, Regent Benedict and Principal Mansfield, as such committee.

President Martin B. Anderson, of Rochester University, read a eulogy on the late Professor Chester Dewey, LL.D.

Regent Benedict, Secretary White, of Massachusetts, President Wilson, and Secretary Woolworth also alluded to the excellent character and eminent services of the deceased.

On motion of Secretary Woolworth, a vote of thanks to President Anderson, for his appropriate and elegant tribute to the memory of Professor Dewey, was unanimously adopted.

President Wilson announced the proposed order of exercises for the third day.

The Convocation then adjourned to meet at nine o'clock to-morrow morning, and the members repaired to the State Library, in accordance with the Chancellor's invitation at the opening of the afternoon session.

Third Day.

FINAL SESSION—NINE O'CLOCK, A. M.

Rev. Dr. Burchard, Chancellor of the Ingham University, led the Convocation in the usual devotional exercises.

The Executive Committee reported the following order of exercises for the final session, which was adopted:

ORDER OF EXERCISES.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 6.

9 A. M.—Report of the Executive Committee.

9.15 A. M.—Written Examinations in the higher English branches and the classics; Principal ALONZO FLACK, *Claverack Academy*.

9.30 A. M.—Condition and Preservation of the Historical Monuments and Memorials of the State of New York; Professor DANIEL S. MARTIN, *Rutgers Female College*.

10 A. M.—Normal Instruction in Academies; Principal NOAH T. CLARKE, *Canandaigua Academy*.

11 A. M.—The method of studying and teaching Mathematics; Professor OTIS H. ROBINSON, *University of Rochester*.

11.45 A. M.—Memorials of recently deceased members of the Convocation, including the following: Vice-Chancellor PHINEHAS STAUNTON, *Ingham University*; Professor AMOS DEAN, *University of Albany*; MATTHEW VASSAR, the founder of *Vassar College*; Professor M. M. MARSH, M. D., *Rutgers Female College*; Professor JOHN F. RICHARDSON, *University of Rochester*.

12 M.—Official Papers relating to the early History of Education in the State of New York; Assistant-Secretary DANIEL J. PRATT, *Albany*.

12.15 P. M.—Miscellaneous Business, announcement of Committees, &c.

12.30 P. M.—Final adjournment.

The Executive Committee further reported as follows :

The above order of exercises, together with those presented on the two preceding days, disposes of all the subjects on our list on which it has been practicable to get either report, paper, or other action, except those of Professor Lewis, and Principals Higley and Morehouse, in regard to which letters have been received by the Secretary, and that of Professor Hall, who is in attendance upon the Association for the Advancement of Science, at Chicago.

There remains, however, the following list of subjects, on which no action has been or can be taken at this meeting of the Convocation, in consequence of the absence or otherwise of those from whom papers were expected :

1. What further action is desirable in relation to the Decimal System of Weights and Measures? Chancellor John V. L. Pruyn, Albany; Professor Charles Davies, Fishkill Landing; Regent Robert S. Hale, Elizabethtown, *Committee*. (Re-committed at the last Convocation.)

2. At what age is it expedient and desirable that young men should be admitted to college? Professor Edward North, Hamilton College; President Frederick A. P. Barnard, Columbia College; Principal James W. Mason Albany Academy, *Committee*. (Not reported upon at the last Convocation.)

16. How far can Comparative Philology be taught in the college course? Professor Wesley P. Codington, Genesee College.

Your committee therefore recommend that the foregoing subjects be laid over and referred to the next annual meeting, in the hope that some report, or other paper, on each subject may be ready for consideration at that time.

W. D. WILSON,
for the Committee

The Secretary submitted the letter from Professor Lewis, above referred to, which was read, as follows:

UNION COLLEGE,
SCHENECTADY, July 30, 1868. }

MY DEAR SIR: Soon after writing to you in May, I had a severe attack of vertigo, which took me in my lecture room, and left me in a condition in which I could not study—much less write as I could wish to do. I have made some attempts at such a paper as I proposed to submit to the Convocation, but this was against the opinion of my physicians, and I have been compelled reluctantly to give it up for the present. I can barely write to ask if such a paper, if prepared in the fall, may have a place in the proceedings of the University Convocation. I became stronger the past year, after a perfect quiet during the summer, and I hope that, with the divine blessing, this may be the case again. I wish very much to treat of the *difficulties* which, in this country, lie in the way of true university education, as the *higher or scholastic CULTURE*, in distinction from the undergraduate course on the one hand, and

the polytechnic, or what may be called professional education, on the other. The great difficulty (to use the language of the mart), is the want of a *demand* for such culture—a difficulty which no abundance of pecuniary means, or even the securing of the best instructors, can immediately help, although they may do much towards creating the beginning of a literary taste that may, in time, lead to such a demand. In showing how our politics, and our social condition, with other influences, are in the way of such higher education, and of the necessary time and study demanded for it, I could still pay due honor to the noble man who is striving to found a true university in this State, and to the noble faculty and teachers he is striving to secure. To those who have a high and true purpose, a statement of difficulties is a stimulus rather than a discouragement.

Yours truly,

TAYLER LEWIS.

S. B. WOOLWORTH, LL.D.

On motion it was unanimously

Resolved, That Professor Tayler Lewis, LL.D., of Union College, be requested to prepare a paper on University Education, as proposed, and that the same be published as a part of the proceedings of this Convocation.

The Secretary also stated that letters have been received from Principals Higley, of Auburn Academic High School, and Morehouse, of Albion Academy, stating their probable inability to be present at this meeting, on account of the severe illness of near friends, and expressing their sincere regrets on account of the detention. The absence of Professor Hall was also accounted for by a prior engagement at the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, he not being aware when he engaged to present a paper on "The Study of Natural History" at the Convocation, that the two meetings were to occur at the same time.

On motion the subjects named in the report of the Executive Committee, together with those of Principals Higley and Morehouse, and Professor Hall, were laid over to next year.

Regent Benedict, in behalf of the special committee appointed to draft a resolution on the subject of female education, reported the following:

Resolved, That this Convocation recommend to the Regents of the University that whenever any academy or institute educating women shall have adopted and carried out such a course of study as shall render it proper, they so amend the

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charter of such academy or institute as to enable it to confer upon those of its pupils who shall have completed such course of study, the degrees usually conferred upon women.

On motion of President Raymond, the words "such degrees as the Regents may deem appropriate," were substituted for the words "the degrees usually conferred upon women."

The resolution, as thus amended, was adopted.

Principal Alonzo Flack, of Claverack Academy and Hudson River Institute, read a paper on "Written Examinations in the higher English branches and the classics."

Professor Daniel S. Martin, of Rutgers Female College, read a paper entitled "The Condition and Preservation of the Historical Monuments and Memorials of the State of New York."

Assistant-Secretary Pratt submitted the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, That the University Convocation, recognizing the importance of rescuing, as far as possible, from oblivion the monuments and memorials illustrative of the history of this State, recommend that efforts be made to encourage existing historical associations, and the formation of others, in portions of the State where none as yet exist.

Resolved, That it is the sense of the Convocation that the *Academies* of the State may do much for the collection of local facts, both historical and scientific, by enlisting the co-operation of citizens, through local associations organized for the purpose.

On motion of President Van Rensselaer, of De Veaux College, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the Trustees of the State Library be requested to secure photographic views of the old French and English buildings at Fort Niagara, to be deposited in the Library.

Resolved, That this Convocation respectfully urge upon the proper State authorities to secure the old battery now at the fort, which has been ordered to be sold, to be deposited among the State trophies.

Secretary Woolworth announced that the Hon. Henry Barnard, U. S. Commissioner of Education, and B. G. Northrop, Secretary of the Connecticut Board of Education, are present, and moved that they be invited to take part in the proceedings, as honorary members; which motion was unanimously adopted.

Principal Noah T. Clarke, of Canandaigua Academy, read a paper on "Normal Instruction in Academies."

The subject was further discussed by Principals Graves and King, Regent Luckey and Secretary Woolworth.

Professor Otis N. Robinson, of the University of Rochester, read a paper entitled "The method of studying and teaching Mathematics."

The subject of the paper was discussed by Professor Martin and President Anderson.

Under the head of "University Necrology," biographical sketches of Col. Phineas Staunton, Vice-Chancellor of Ingham University; Professor M. M. Marsh, M. D., of Rutgers Female College; and Professor John F. Richardsen, of Rochester University, having been furnished, were read by the Assistant-Secretary.

On motion it was unanimously

Resolved, That Professor Ira Harris, LL.D., of the Law Department of the University of Albany, be requested to furnish a biographical notice of the late Professor Amos Dean, LL.D., for publication as a part of the proceedings of this Convocation; and that President Raymond, of Vassar College, be invited to prepare a sketch of the late Matthew Vassar, the founder of Vassar College, for the same purpose.

In accordance with a special invitation by the Chancellor, the Hon. Henry Barnard, U. S. Commissioner of Education, briefly addressed the Convocation.

The Chancellor expressed his interest in the recently established Department of Education, and alluded to his official action as a member of Congress, to secure the requisite appropriation for its continuance.

On motion of Professor Martin, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That as a Convocation we hereby express our very deep conviction of the importance of the Department of Education established by the general government, and our desire that such a department should continue its work of collecting statistical and other information which may promote the educational interests of our country.

The time assigned to the paper entitled "Official Papers relating to the early History of Education in the State of New York," having been otherwise occupied, the following resolution, submitted by Assistant-Secretary Pratt, was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the permanent officers of the Convocation are hereby authorized and requested to include the compilation of official papers submitted by the Assistant-Secretary, with such modifications as they may deem advisable, in the published proceedings of this Convocation.

The Chancellor announced the following committees for the ensuing year:

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

Professor William D. Wilson, - - *Hobart Coll. and Cornell Univ'y.*
 Warden Robert B. Fairbairn, - - *St. Stephen's College.*
 Professor Gerardus B. Docharty, *College of the City of New York.*
 President Joseph Alden, - - - - - *State Normal School.*
 Principal Joseph E. King, - - - - *Fort Edward Collegiate Institute.*
 Principal J. Dunbar Houghton, - *Hungerford Collegiate Institute.*
 Principal Milan L. Ward, - - - - *Norwich Academy*

UNIVERSITY NECROLOGY.

Secretary Samuel B. Woolworth, *Albany.*
 Professor Daniel S. Martin, - - - *Rutgers Female College.*
 Principal Elisha Curtiss, - - - - *Sodus Academy.*

NORMAL INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGES.

Professor Edward North, - - - - *Hamilton College.*
 Regent Robert S. Hale, - - - - *Elizabethtown.*
 Professor Benjamin N. Martin, - *University of the City of New York.*
 Professor William D. Wilson, - *Hobart Coll. and Cornell Univ'y.*
 Principal Noah T. Clarke, - - - - *Canandaigua Academy.*

ROLL OF HONOR.

Professor Anson J. Upson, - - - *Hamilton College.*
 Professor Benjamin N. Martin, - *University of the City of New York.*
 Assistant-Sec'y Daniel J. Pratt, - *Albany.*
 Principal Noah T. Clarke, - - - *Canandaigua Academy.*
 Principal Albert S. Graves, - - *Oneida Conference Seminary.*
 Principal Joseph E. King, - - - - *Fort Edward Collegiate Institute.*

The hour for adjournment having arrived, the Chancellor briefly addressed the Convocation, and declared the same adjourned to meet on the first Tuesday of August, 1869.

Registered Members of the Convocation.

BOARD OF REGENTS.

John V. L. Pruyn, LL.D., Chancellor; Gulian C. Verplanck, LL.D., Vice-Chancellor; Reuben E. Fenton, Governor; Abram B. Weaver, Superintendent of Public Instruction; Prosper M. Wetmore, New York city; Samuel Luckey, D.D., Rochester; Erastus C. Benedict, LL.D., New York city; Isaac Parks, D.D., Whitehall; Robert S. Hale, Elizabethtown; George R. Perkins, LL.D., Utica; William H. Goodwin, D.D., Clifton Springs; Samuel B. Woolworth, LL.D., Secretary; Daniel J. Pratt, Assistant-Secretary.

COLLEGES, ETC.

Columbia College—Professor Henry Drisler, LL.D.

Union College—Acting-President Ira Harris, LL.D.; Professor William Wells.

Hamilton College—President Samuel G. Brown, D.D., LL.D.; Professor Anson J. Upson; Professor Christian H. F. Peters, Ph. D.

Hobart College—Acting-President William D. Wilson, D. D., LL.D.

University of the City of New York—Professor Benjamin N. Martin, D. D., S. T. D.; Professor John Norton Pomeroy, LL.D.

Madison University—Professor N. L. Andrews.

St. John's College—Professor Frederick W. Gockeln.

Genesee College—Professor John R. French.

University of Rochester—President Martin B. Anderson, LL.D.; Professor Otis H. Robinson.

Alfred University—President Jonathan Allen.

Ingham University—Chancellor Samuel D. Burchard, D.D.

St. Stephen's College—Warden Robert B. Fairbairn, D.D.; Tutor Arthur C. Kimber.

College of St. Francis Xavier—Professor Patrick F. Dealy.

Vassar College—President John H. Raymond, LL.D.; Professor Truman J. Backus.

Cornell University—President Andrew D. White, LL.D.; Trustee Ezra Cornell; Trustee John Meredith Read, Jr.

College of the City of New York—Professor Gerardus B. Docharty, LL.D.; Professor John A. Nichols, LL.D.; Professor Adolph Werner.

Rutgers Female College—Professor Daniel S. Martin.

De Veaux College—President Maunsell Van Rensselaer, D.D.

Albany Medical College—Professor John H. Armsby; Professor Jacob S. Mosher.

New York Medical College for Women—Mrs. Clemence S. Lozier, Professor; Mrs. R. B. Connolly, Trustee.

State Normal School—President Joseph Alden, D. D., LL.D.; Professor Le Roy C. Cooley; Professor Rodney G. Kimball; Professor Albert N. Huested.

Brockport Normal School—President Charles D. McLean; Professor James H. Hoose.

Potsdam Normal School—President John H. French, LL.D.

Williams College (Mass.)—Librarian N. H. Griffin.

Wesleyan University (Ct.)—President Joseph Cummings, LL.D.

Northwestern University (Ill.)—Professor D. Bonbright.

Maplewood Institute (Pittsfield, Mass.)—Principal C. V. Spear.

New Hampshire Board of Education—Ex-Sec'y Jonathan Tenny.

Massachusetts Board of Education—Secretary Joseph White.

Connecticut Board of Education—Secretary B. G. Northrop.

New York State Teachers' Association—Vice-President Edward Danforth.

New York Department of Public Instruction—Professor Michael P. Cavert.

New York State Executive Department—Adjutant-General Selden E. Marvin.

United States Department of Education—Commissioner Henry Barnard, LL.D.

United States War Department—Major-General Daniel E. Sickles.

ACADEMIES, ETC.

Albany Academy—Principal J. W. Mason; Assistant R. H. Swan.

Albany Classical Institute—Ex-Principal C. H. Anthony.

Albany Board of Education—President J. O. Cole.

Albany Public School No. 14—Principal J. L. Bothwell.

Amsterdam Academy—Principal C. C. Wetsell.

Argyle Academy—Principal G. M. Ingalsbe.

Binghamton Academy—Superintendent N. F. Wright.
Canandaigua Academy—Principal N. T. Clarke.
Catskill Free Academy—Principal W. C. McCarthy.
Clarence Academy—Principal E. D. Ronan.
Claverack Academy and H. R. Institute—Principal A. Flack;
Professor T. S. Lambert, M.D.; Assistant Robert C. Flack.
Cortland Academy—Ex-Principal E. P. Nichols.
Cortlandville Academy—Principal J. J. Pease.
Deaf and Dumb Institution—Professor O. W. Morris.
Delaware Literary Institute—Principal G. W. Jones.
Falley Seminary—Assistant E. A. Briggs.
Fort Edward Collegiate Institute—Principal Joseph E. King,
D. D.
Fort Plain Seminary—Principal B. I. Diefendorf.
Franklin Academy, Prattsburgh—Principal Henry C. Whiting.
Grammar School of Madison University—Principal N. L.
Andrews.
Hartford Academy—Secretary G. M. Ingalsbe.
Hoosick Falls Union School—Principal J. K. Hull.
Hungerford Collegiate Institute—Principal J. D. Houghton.
Jonesville Academy—Principal T. H. Kimpton.
Lansingburgh Academy—Principals A. B. Whipple and H. A.
Pierce.
Marion Collegiate Institute—Principal T. B. Lovell.
McGrawville Union School—Principal A. M. Smealie.
Mechanicville Academy—Principal B. D. Ames.
Monticello Academy—Principal F. G. Snook.
Munro Collegiate Institute—Principal T. K. Wright.
Newark Union Free School—Principal J. Wilson.
Newark (N. J.) Public School No. 9—Principal W. N. Barringer.
New Berlin Academy—Principal J. M. Sprague.
New York City Public Schools—Assistant-Superintendent N.
A. Calkins.
Norwich Academy—Principal M. L. Ward.
Oneida Conference Seminary—Principal A. S. Graves.
Rockland Female Institute—Principal L. D. Mansfield.
Rome Academy—Principal E. O. Hovey.
Schenectady Union School—Superintendent E. A. Charlton.
Schoharie Academy—Principal G. W. Briggs.
Sodus Academy—Principal E. Curtiss.
Spencertown Academy—Ex-Principal J. P. Lansing.

Temple Grove Ladies' Seminary, Saratoga Springs—Principal C. F. Dowd.

Troy High School—Principal M. H. Martin.

Watertown High School—Principal E. P. Nichols.

West Winfield Academy—Principal D. P. Blackstone.

Windsor Union School—Principal T. D. Barclay.

REPORTERS.

Albany Argus—Daniel Shaw.

New York Journal of Education, and New York Times—Wesley W. Pasko.

New York Tribune, and Cincinnati Commercial—William H. Belden.

NORMAL INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGE.

BY EDWARD NORTH, A. M.

Robinson Professor of the Greek Language and Literature in Hamilton College.

About three-fourths of the principals of academies in the State of New York are graduates from college. As many as one-third of the young men in each class that graduates from the college with which I am connected, engage, for a longer or a shorter period, in the work of teaching. Since August 1st, 1867, forty-three students of Hamilton College have gone into the teachers' work from the classes of 1867-71. As many more have been furnished from earlier classes, through the direct agency of the college.

At present, this work seems to be often undertaken on the theory that the acquisition of knowledge carries with it aptness to teach, and skill in communicating knowledge. It is too easily taken for granted that a successful student will, as a matter of course, prove a successful teacher. Graduates who are to be lawyers, doctors and preachers, are expected to spend from one to three years in legal, medical or theological studies. But graduates who are to be teachers, who are to assume the delicate and responsible task of moulding the plastic minds of the young, of shaping character for life here and life beyond life, of nurturing and feeding and inspiring hungry souls, these are allowed to hurry away from the position of pupils in college to that of authority as teachers in academies and high schools, with no special preparation for the duties of the school-room. Probably they are less deserving of censure than their friends and advisers, who fail to remind them that mere book-learning and competency in scholarship form but a small part of what is needed to qualify one for the duties of an instructor.

They are deserving of sympathy rather than censure, if they are not reminded, at the outset, that in its intrinsic dignity and importance, the teacher's calling is second only to that of the christian minister; that absolute self-control (without which the control of others is impossible), skill in communicating knowledge, patience in the details of daily drill, with the power of kindling

enthusiasm in pupils, are essential to the teacher's fullest measure of success. Certainly every youthful teacher should be taught how to utilize the experience of those who have done good service and won distinction in his chosen profession. As the lawyer makes himself weighty in counsel and mighty at the bar by the careful study of statutes and legal reports; as the preacher finds inspiration in the lives and sermons of great preachers gone before; so should the teacher look for wisdom and safe guidance in the recorded experience of his fellow-teachers.

Such aids are not denied to teachers in our common schools, who receive special drill in normal schools, academies, and teachers' institutes. But graduates who are to conduct the academies, and thus become teachers of teachers, are strangely left to magnify their office as best they may, and to work out their problem of duty as their own wits may suggest. Is it not a wonder that so many are even moderately successful? Is it strange that mistakes are sometimes made at the outset which lead to alienation between the teacher and his pupils, or between the teacher and his patrons? Is it strange that so many, after a brief and sorrowful experience, are glad to escape the burdens of a calling that has quite enough of perplexities and annoyances even for those who are taught how to shun all that can be shunned, and how to soften such as are inevitable?*

Has not the time come for drawing closer attention to this deficiency in the literary colleges of our State? As all are in the same condition, so far as normal instruction goes, there can be no lack of fraternal courtesy in plain speaking. Now that all the Northern and Western States have made provision, most of them large and munificent provision, for the special training of common school teachers, it surely cannot be too early to say something in favor of providing, either by State appropriation, or by private liberality, for the special and professional training of those who

* "The great deficiency in college graduates," writes one of the leading educators of our State, "is ignorance of the methods of instruction now adopted in our better schools, and ignorance of school discipline and management. The work these graduates are called upon to perform is entirely different from that of the professors who have made the last and perhaps strongest impression upon them, and whose methods they are unconsciously inclined to imitate. This college work is far from fitting students for academic teaching. Often it unfits them, by substituting the more recent impressions of college class-work for those of the preparatory school from which they came. College graduates are superior in culture and general knowledge, but deficient in *technical* skill. Unless our colleges do something towards preparing teachers, a large part of the work of academic teachers must go into the hands of females."

are to be principals of our academies and classical schools, and superintendents of public schools in our cities.

By appropriating \$104,000 annually for the education of common school teachers, the New York State Legislature has given the strongest possible indorsement to a plea in favor of making suitable provision for the special training of academy teachers. Most of our common school teachers are taught in the academies and normal schools; the academies receiving aid, and the normal schools their entire support from the State. It is a singular inconsistency that these academies and normal schools, which are expected to keep the State well supplied with common school teachers, should be left to find their own instructors wherever they can, or train them for high positions as best they may. There is no college in the State of New York, and but one in the Union (according to my best knowledge), that has a chair of didactics, or that gives any special instruction in the art and science of teaching to students who propose to be teachers. Yet a large percentage of graduates engage in the work of teaching, for a longer or shorter period.

Those who make superior teachers must remain in the work long enough to gain, by tentative processes, that special fitness for it that should have been imparted in the college curriculum. As the case stands, their professional training as educators must be gained by feeling their way in the dark after empirical skill, by making a series of experiments at the expense of their pupils, in the same way that members of Congress are sometimes schooled in forensic oratory, and taught to be expert debaters, at the expense of their long-suffering hearers. This method of acquiring the art of teaching is costly and unfortunate, both for the teacher and his pupils. It is as true now as it was when Roger Ascham first wrote it, three hundred years ago, that "Learning teacheth more in a year, than experience in twenty; and learning teacheth safely, where experience maketh more miserable than wise. An unhappy master is he that is made cunning by many shipwrecks; a miserable merchant, that is neither richer nor wise, but after some bankrupts."

It is poor economy for any State to leave uncared for and unassisted, students who are to become teachers of teachers, and thus models for primary instructors to copy. A wiser course would be for the State to pay the college tuition, if not something more than this, of all students who will sign such a pledge as is signed

by those who enter the normal schools, allowing them to study in any college in the State that will organize a normal department, and give special instruction in didactics. At a cost of \$2,000 dollars a year, each of our colleges ought to support a chair of didactics, and send out annually from twenty to thirty teachers, who would be thoroughly fitted for their chosen work, and zealous to express their gratitude for the State's assistance by instructing others in the best methods of conducting primary schools.

A normal department in college, supported by a liberal endowment from the State, and offering free tuition, would be an attractive feature. It would draw in young men who are now kept away from college by lack of means, or the absence of that particular kind of instruction which they require. Time and experience would bring the normal department into entire harmony with other courses of study. It certainly should be a separate department, with normal exercises wholly distinct from those of any other department. Among these exercises would be a course of lectures on the history and philosophy of education; with essays and discussions on questions pertaining to the management of schools and the art of teaching. A very profitable exercise would be had by organizing the normal class into a model school, to be drilled by one of its senior members, subject to criticism by the normal professor. By careful reviews in Virgil, Xenophon, algebra, geometry, and other studies that belong to the academy curriculum, students in the normal department would be made familiar not only with the text-books to be used, but also with the best manner of using them.

It may be objected that a college is not the place for special or professional students; that its curriculum has been so arranged as to meet the intellectual needs of candidates for all the learned professions; that it aims to bring together young men of unlike preferences and of different pursuits in the future, on an elevated platform of broad and generous culture; that a department for normal instruction in college would be like a fifth wheel to a coach, out of place and cumbersome.

This objection may seem less formidable, after reading President Hill's statement that "There is a sense in which the study of didactics may be called a liberal study: it is that every student may be considered prospectively as the head of a family, and that the art of teaching is therefore of universal utility."

The objection may be further replied to by saying that if the college were organized and operated for the professional training of lawyers, or preachers, or physicians, or engineers, its curriculum would be essentially different from that now pursued: but if the college were organized and operated for the professional training of academy teachers, and other students were excluded, its curriculum would embrace all the studies that are now taught, with the addition of a course of instruction in the theory and practice of teaching, and with frequent exercises in a model school. What hinders, then, that each of our literary colleges should fill up this deplorable gap with a chair of didactics and a model school?

It may be further objected that although a large percentage of graduates engage in teaching, it is with most of them only a temporary employment, an easy method of paying off pressing debts, and paving the way to some permanent profession. If this fact is fully admitted, it ought not to be called an objection to normal discipline in our literary colleges. It is really a very strong argument in favor of such discipline. As a matter of fact only a small proportion of those who graduate from our normal schools, adhere to teaching for a lifetime. A graduate from college who is to teach but two or three years, can ill afford to waste the first year in clumsy and damaging efforts to find out the best way of doing his work. He has no time for a teacher's apprenticeship. If he is to master the situation he must meet its difficulties with masterly skill.

As soon as he crosses the threshold of the schoolroom, these difficulties confront him, not singly, but in solid phalanx. They are most numerous at the outset, and they refuse to be postponed. He must meet them altogether; and he can meet them without fear, if forewarned and forearmed by the teachings of a normal professor.

President Hill takes the position (*Barnard's Journal of Education*, vol. 15, p. 179), that "Normal schools should be attached to our universities, and that Bachelors of Arts who intend to teach should be urged first to take one or two years' special instruction in the art of teaching." This would be well; it would, indeed, be the best thing possible, if Bachelors of Arts could be induced to spend another year or another two years at the University, in preparation for a service that is meant to be but temporary. Very few graduates would tarry at a normal school, except such as intended to be teachers for life.

Not among the smallest of the benefits to be conferred by normal instruction in our literary colleges, would be its recognition of the intrinsic dignity and importance of the teacher's profession. Young men in college would be brought to realize that teaching has its acknowledged rank among the arts and sciences; and that the teacher's work should be undertaken from a higher motive than that of mending a temporary shortness of funds. Unseasoned graduates, always prone to be carried astray by "the unfleshed valor of inexperience," would be saved from many a needless failure and many a life-long regret. There would be less of that childish eagerness, now so observable among new teachers, to pull themselves up about six months after they have been planted in a given place, to see if they have really taken root, and are growing.

Under the influence of normal instruction in our colleges, it might be expected that the bonds of sympathy and brotherhood which unite the college with the academy and the common school would be greatly strengthened, and that new life would be breathed into our noble system of popular education.

That these views may not appear to be those of a single enthusiast, unindorsed by educators of larger observation and riper experience, I close this paper with several paragraphs on "Normal Instruction in Colleges," from the last Report of the Regents of the University of the State of New York:

"NORMAL INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGES.

"The State has made liberal provision for the education of the teachers of the public schools. This began in 1835, by 'the establishment and organization by the Regents of the University, of a teachers' department in one academy in each of the eight Senatorial districts of the State,' as recommended in an elaborate report by the Hon. John A. Dix, then superintendent of common schools. The first movement in this direction was thus made by this board, and it has been continued to the present time in its supervision of the teachers' departments of the academies, and also, in connection with the Superintendent of Public Instruction, of the State Normal School. The amount now annually appropriated for the instruction of teachers in six normal schools, in teachers' departments in ninety academies, and in teachers' institutes, is more than one hundred thousand dollars. The position of teachers as officers of the State, and the duty of the State to provide for their professional education is thus as distinctly recognized as the establishment and support of the schools themselves.

"The importance of such education cannot be limited to the teachers of the public Schools, for whom the appropriations above referred to are principally made. If there is a philosophy of education and an art of teaching, they are as applicable to the advanced departments of instruction as to the elementary. The teachers of academies as much need systematic education into the best methods of *their* duties, as do the teachers of the common schools into those peculiar to them.

Many a lad, after he has completed his elementary education, has had his taste for study absolutely destroyed, and his scholarship ruined, by an unskillful teacher. The principals of academies are mostly supplied by the colleges, and in these they should not only be instructed in all the learning which will fit them for their work, but in all the methods which will qualify them to do it well. There is not a college in the State, nor, so far as is known or appears from their published course of studies, one in the whole country, in which specific instruction is given to its graduates in the theory and practice of teaching. It seems to be assumed that if they have scholarship, they are qualified teachers; and that they can work out, each for himself, the best means of influence over the young mind, and of training it to a knowledge and love of liberal learning. An educated and disciplined mind may be able to do this more skillfully and logically than one little cultivated, and yet the young man who goes from his Alma Mater familiar with the history of education and the systems of his own and other countries, who has studied the philosophy of the mind in view of the influences by which its powers may be developed, who understands the true order of their development and who, by his own training, can bring himself into the warmest sympathy with his pupil and influence him to high purposes and energetic action, is surely the better qualified teacher.

"In view of these considerations and others equally imperative, the Regents have no hesitation in asking from the Legislature such an appropriation as will enable them to provide, in several of the colleges of the State, instruction in didactics, on a plan which, after consultation with the proper authorities of such colleges as may be interested in the subject, they shall deem best calculated to secure the object proposed.

"It is confidently believed that such a plan of education and training for the teachers of academies may be devised, as will secure to those institutions teachers with all the special qualifications for their work which are deemed indispensable for the professions of law, medicine and divinity, and that teaching, which has most to do with man's spiritual nature, will be elevated in character and advanced in rank to a full equality with the professions which have long been termed *learned*.

"The most elementary public schools of the State may be taught only by those who have successfully sustained an examination by a public officer; yet the law interposes no prohibition to the employment, in an academy, of the unsuccessful candidate for a commissioner's certificate, even while the public funds contribute to his support. It may not be wise to require at once that every teacher of an academy shall pass the ordeal of an examination; and yet it is believed that the largest learning and skill will not be the rule to the teacher, and that his employment will not be elevated to the dignity of a profession, while the comparatively ignorant and unskilled are subjected to no test, and the learned and skillful receive no authorized and public recognition of superior excellence; nor can this be secured until ample provision is made by the State for the highest professional education." [Regents' Report, 1868, pp. xix-xxii.]

APPENDIX.

The suggestions of this paper are confirmed by the following letter from Professor D. Franklin Wells, a graduate from the Albany Normal School, in 1852, whose recent death is a serious loss to the cause of education at the West:

OFFICE OF SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, }
DES MOINES, IOWA, July 22, 1868. }

Prof. EDWARD NORTH, Clinton, N. Y.:

My Dear Sir:—In 1856 I assumed the management of the normal department of the State University of Iowa, then recently organized, and remained in charge of the department for ten consecutive years. The department was a popular one with students always, embracing, until within the last one or two years, a majority of the students of the University, which now numbers nearly seven hundred. The normal course of study was similar to that in our best State normal schools, but more thoroughly mastered than was formerly the case at Albany, and in some other normal schools with which I have been acquainted. The aim was to have the graduates sent out well disciplined, rather than to send out a larger number with less culture.

When practicable, those pursuing the normal course were combined in classes with students from other departments. Thus, for instance, those pursuing the classical, scientific and normal courses of study, recited their geometry together to the Professor of mathematics.

The existence of a preparatory department in the university permitted classes to be combined in many of the elementary studies, though in fact, in consequence of the large number of normal students, they were generally instructed in separate classes, which were duplicated in the preparatory department.

The experiment has been deemed an *entire success*, though some have appeared to discover evidences of partiality in the feelings of the faculty and trustees towards the literary and scientific departments of the institution. There is no State normal school in Iowa, and therefore this department has furnished all the normal instruction which has been given in the State.

During the last year the department has suffered some unfriendly legislation from the trustees of the university, by which the "Model School," or *school for practice* has been excised, and all the *training* features which previously existed, discontinued. It is considered that the usefulness of the department will be seriously impaired by this action.

In the older colleges which have no preparatory course of study, it would probably be impracticable to have a normal department conducted as this has been, unless there was employed to a larger extent a separate corps of instructors. And yet we all feel the want of more normal instruction. I think I am not guilty of exaggeration when I state, that while in our colleges we find our profoundest scholars, we sometimes find the *poorest instructors*. We must continue to depend upon our colleges to supply themselves with professors, as well as to supply our academies and high schools with instructors, and many of our cities with super-

intendents of public schools. Those who are thus to stand in the chief places of educational responsibility, ought not themselves to be destitute or deprived of instruction in the science and art of instructing and governing, and in the general principles of education.

While it may not be practicable to introduce a complete normal course of study and training in colleges, I have frequently thought that much good might be accomplished by a comparatively brief course of professional instruction given by a professor in the theory and practice of teaching. The professorship of didactics might possibly, for the sake of economy, be associated with some other department, though its usefulness might thereby be impaired. I believe these suggestions to be entirely practicable.

Please pardon the haste with which I have thrown these few suggestions together, in the press of other duties.

I rejoice in the present and prospective prosperity of your noble college, which is visible from my birth-place in Trenton, and in whose success I retain a lively interest.

Yours, very truly,

D. FRANKLIN WELLS, *Sup't Pub. Ins.*

[UN. CONV.]

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THE DEPARTMENT OF MIXED MATHEMATICS IN THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

BY JOHN A. NICHOLS, LL.D.,

Professor of Mixed Mathematics in the College of the City of New York.

About the year 1856, the board of education of New York city decided that the studies to be pursued in the department of mixed mathematics in the City College (then called Free Academy), should be analytical mechanics, acoustics, optics, spherical astronomy and civil engineering, and that the studies of the department should extend from the beginning of the junior to the close of the senior year. During the first year of the war, military engineering was added, embracing, as far as time would permit, the elements and methods of temporary or field fortifications, and of ordnance and gunnery.

These subjects have been, from the time of their first introduction, systematically taught to the junior and senior classes of the college. They are also practically taught, with all the resources which the board of education has placed at the disposal of the department. These embrace the best French and American physical apparatus; also models of bridges, arches, and topographical drawing, some imported from Paris, and some made in the workshop of the board of Education; with models of fortification, copied by permission from some at West Point.

The theoretical teaching of the above subjects has been conducted in accordance with the inference drawn from the following facts: In whatever country special education has been successfully and extensively carried out; that is, where artizans and apprentices to mechanical trades and manufactures have been taught drawing and modeling and the elementary principles on which their trades depend; in that country the highest class of schools has also been established, called universities, polytechnic schools, &c., where instruction in the abstract principles, of which the arts are particular examples, is given. In these higher schools, for example, are taught descriptive geometry, or the abstract principles of machine, engineering and architectural drawing, and analytical mechanics, or the laws of the motions of all bodies,

from the molecule of matter to planets and suns. Mr. Scott Russell, the distinguished English mechanic and shipbuilder, has explained in an essay on the results of the great exhibition held at Paris last year, how admirably the French government provides for the special education of artizans. He also shows, as a consequence, with what perfection of skill and finish French manufactures are produced, and with what steadiness they are making their way in the markets of the world. But this wise and practical nation understands how necessary it is to have the highest institutions for teaching the most abstract principles of science. Thus, there are always in that community, men who comprehend and teach, directly and indirectly the principles and most finished methods of the arts, from a standpoint that is above these arts; and not at their level merely.

In this country much has been said and written upon the necessity of practical education; by which the speakers and writers mean, of course, the special education in the rules and principles of the arts and manufactures. But this has not yet been obtained, and cannot be obtained till we have education in the most abstract laws and principles, of which the processes and rules of the arts are particular examples. When we have true universities, then we may have special schools, teaching the rules of art, for then we shall have men capable of determining what the courses of instruction in those schools should be, and men capable of teaching those courses thoroughly. The light from the great schools of abstract learning will then penetrate directly, or by reflection, into the remotest corners. At present, the one great pressing want of this country is the highest intellectual education.

As before stated, the first subject in the course of mixed mathematics at the New York City College, is analytical mechanics. The text-book employed is the treatise of Professor Bartlett, of West Point. In that treatise, after a few preliminary definitions and principles are stated, a single equation is deduced from the principle of virtual velocities and the law of the equality of action and reaction. This equation is transformed; six others are obtained from it; and from it and them are deduced the principles of mechanics and the laws of the motions of solids, fluids and molecules. These laws are vast as the universe, applicable equally to the motions of machines and bodies on the earth and of planets in the heavens. They include theorems of the great geometers, Euler, Newton, Daniel Bernoulli, Laplace, D'Alembert, Carnot.

The student who passes through this course, hardly realizes how his mind has enlarged by striving to master these grand results of the labors of the élite intellects of the world. The effect is like that described in "Childe Harold" of the vastness of St. Peter's church upon one who enters it for the first time:

"Enter! its grandeur overwhelms thee not;
And why? it is not lessened, but thy mind,
Expanded by the Genius of the spot,
Has grown colossal and can only find
A fit abode wherein appear enshrined
Thy hopes of immortality!"

If children were to be taught what mechanics they are capable of learning, the above method would not be pursued. The model of one of the simple machines would perhaps be taken, its parts would be pointed out, their relations exhibited, and the relations of the forces acting upon them. By degrees, facts would be generalized and principles evolved. There are, however, times in every one's life when it will be required of his experience and knowledge to furnish the evidence for general principles, which are to be guides of action and of life, and his success or failure will depend upon the correctness with which he reasons from such principles. It is believed that at the beginning of the junior year of our college course, the student's mind is sufficiently matured and he has acquired sufficient knowledge to be able to reverse his process of learning as a child, and to be trained in that grander method, so necessary to a man of thought and of successful action. And so, in spite of the complaints of students, that the subject is very hard, and tasks them almost beyond their strength; in spite of the doubtful questions of fellow-professors, such as, "Do the students really understand it?" in spite of sneering remarks in the newspapers and elsewhere, such as, "The West Point mathematics are of no practical use to our city boys;" in the light of the principle of the human mind, stated above, and in the light of that other principle, that the highest abstract knowledge is the fruitful mother of the best and most finished practical; we have gone on steadily, requiring, as faithful teachers, that the effort should be made, seeing that it was made, more or less perfectly, and feeling sure that time would show us, in the trained intellects of our students, the reward of their and our efforts.

In establishing this course, Professor Barflett has been frequently consulted. Visits have been made to his class-rooms at

West Point, and he in return has attended recitations and examinations at the college. In other words, his long experience and high scholarship have, with unfailing courtesy and kindness, ever been at the service of the college and its students.

The other studies of the course of mixed mathematics are also taught as involving abstract principles, of which certain arts are particular examples. Thus, from the applications of astronomy to the calculation of latitude, time and azimuths, result principles by which the place of a ship at sea, a point on land and the variation of the compass can be determined. That is, navigation and surveying are among the arts whose rules are constructed from the general principles of astronomy.

The important application of descriptive geometry to stone-cutting, instructs the student how to make drawings of any special structure, as a dome, a groined arch, an oblique arch, a spiral staircase, so that he can find the dimensions of the bounding lines and surfaces of every stone that is to form an element of the structure. Thus, from the drawings of the engineer, every stone is cut to fit its place. Descriptive geometry is here the mother science, in accordance with whose abstract principles, structures of wood, stone and iron are erected, fortifications built and the beautiful roads of the Central Park laid out. But even a more important result is obtained. The student acquires the habit of forming a complete conception of any object he wishes to obtain before beginning to execute it. The idea is thoroughly developed in the mind and pictured out before the designer applies his thought to things, whether those things or objects upon which he intends to work are men or materials. One particular case of this general principle is expressed, with mathematical precision, in Shakspeare's exquisite lines:

"And as imagination bodies forth
The forms of things unknown;
The poet's pen turns them to shapes,
And gives to airy nothing
A local habitation and a name."

The subjects comprised in the course of engineering could not have been taught so thoroughly, as it is believed they have been, except for the fact that our students are carefully instructed during the first three years of their connection with the college, in drawing, both free hand and mechanical, the latter based upon descriptive geometry. The department of drawing is one of the most

important in the City College. The training of the mind to see objects in nature as they really appear to the eye, and of the hand to execute what the mind conceives is, in my judgment, as important a part of education, as the training in logic and language, those great instruments of thought and of expression. Three years ago I read a paper before the University Convocation on the importance of drawing as a branch of college education. The seed then attempted to be sown, fell undoubtedly upon stony ground or among thorns. But it seems very strange that it should have been so, as drawing could be introduced without displacing a single study of the existing college course. The example of West Point, where the drawing department has been most efficiently conducted for many years, has operated in the contrary direction; that is, people have said, drawing is undoubtedly very useful to a military officer, but unofficial people can do without it. One of the leading New York city newspapers made lately a similar remark about what it called "The West Point mathematics." But West Point has no monopoly of the mathematics, and the colleges will hardly be induced to discard them because at West Point they are thoroughly taught.

I have looked carefully through a pamphlet entitled "The Cornell University, second edition," expecting to find mention of a department of descriptive geometry and drawing; but, I regret to say, without success. It is not probable that the Professors of "Civil Engineering," "Mining and Metallurgy," "Military Science," and "Rural Architecture," in that institution, will be able to advance students beyond the merest elements of their subjects, or to impart to them knowledge upon which they can build the highest practice of any of these arts, unless those students are previously trained in theoretical drawing. Cornell University will, of course, establish this necessary department. I look forward, therefore, with confidence and hope to the time, when an example will be set to the colleges, in such a way that they will be convinced that this important department will be for the great advantage of these students, and consequently of themselves and of the whole country.

Finally, in this account of the studies of one department of knowledge, I have endeavored to show: 1st. That there can be no thorough, wide-spread, and permanent instruction in special practical studies, in this country, till there are institutions where the highest knowledge is pursued for its own sake; and thus the

grand abstract principles, of which the arts of life are but particular examples, come to be the possession of a body of men diffused throughout the community, who can enlighten and guide public opinion, and determine the subjects, extent and methods of the special courses. 2d. That, therefore, in this country, at this time, the first and most pressing want of the community, is the highest intellectual education. 3d. That there should be a time in the college course, when the student should be required to adopt, and reason from, principles of the widest generality, the evidence for which is drawn from his own experience and knowledge. 4th. That the theory and practice of drawing should be adopted, with as little delay as is consistent with its firm establishment, as an essential and obligatory part of the course in colleges and higher academies; as a training of the eye and the mind in the true perception of Nature, and as an essential part of every man's general knowledge of the necessary arts of life; whether, or not, he is to acquire a technical knowledge of any one such art.

With this summary I submit the views contained in this paper to the kind and candid judgment of the members of the University Convocation.

WHY SHOULD ELEMENTARY CHEMISTRY BE REQUIRED FOR ADMISSION TO COLLEGE?

BY LE ROY C. COOLEY, A. M.,

Professor of Natural Sciences in the New York State Normal School.

It will not be well for me to attempt a review of the reasons which have been given by various eminent members of the Convocation why the natural sciences should be taught in the preparatory schools. In passing to the points proposed for consideration in this paper, it may be well to notice the facts: 1st, that elementary instruction in chemistry is being given in the majority of academies; 2d, that the college course repeats the instruction given by the academies, instead of beginning with a higher course; and 3d, that from the college course subjects of acknowledged importance are crowded out for want of time to consider them. These, in themselves, are strong reasons why an elementary course in this science should be required for admission to college.

But I am persuaded that there are other reasons than these—reasons springing from the nature of the subject itself—why chemistry, more than any other study among the natural sciences, should be taught in a preparatory as well as in a collegiate course.

If we admit that the powers of the mind are to be trained in their most natural order; and if first, the perception, then the understanding, and afterwards the reason, is the order in which nature chooses to unfold the intellectual powers, it follows that to know the nature of any subject with reference to its effects upon these powers, is to know where to put it and how to use it in a course of intellectual culture.

Now chemistry is both descriptive and philosophic, and as the science now stands, the disproportion between its facts and its principles is without a parallel.

In its early days, chemistry was almost entirely a descriptive science. In the last half of the 18th century, for example, the members of the Academy of Science in France—among the most learned bodies of scientific men in the world—became involved in a most spirited discussion about the properties of what is now

known as the oxide of mercury. The interest in the debate becoming so great that national boundaries could not confine it, an humble clergyman in England began an investigation of the subject. One day, having arranged the substance in a closed vessel, he concentrated upon it the sun's rays by means of a burning-glass. To his great surprise, little globules of shining mercury appeared; and his astonishment increased when he found that the air within his vessel had gained the power of heightening to a ten-fold brilliancy the flame of a burning taper. In fact, the substance was decomposed, and the gas, now known as oxygen, was for the first time set free. That cunning thing which, hiding in the atmosphere, the water, and the rocks, had for ages baffled the search of the scientist, was exposed by the sunlight at last, and caught in the vial of the chemist. This incident fitly illustrates the early character of this science. Notice, first, that the men who engaged in the discussion were the most eminent chemists of the day; but notice, further, that the question thus settled was a question about qualities rather than principles, and that to answer it requires the ability to give a true description rather than the power to trace an argument. Now such, for the most part, were the questions which absorbed the attention of the early chemists, whose answers made up the young science of chemistry.

But in later days, chemistry has grown to be more philosophic. It is no longer a science of qualities merely; it has come to be a science of principles and laws. Nature is being questioned, not so much about the properties she has given, as about the laws she has ordained. For these her inmost recesses are being ransacked. The microscope pierces the regions of the infinitesimal; the spectroscope unravels the influences of the sun and stars; while the refractory rocks are submitted to the refined torture of the modern blow-pipe and galvanic battery. The new qualities thus revealed, numerous as they are and often astonishing, are not the ultimate objects of the chemist's search: they are but the attractive pebbles in the path, to be anxiously examined by him who searches for mines of gold. The chemist seeks not so much for isolated facts about bodies of matter, as for the comprehensive laws which govern the processes of nature. Through his knowledge of the qualities and composition of different substances, he seeks to know the constitution of matter itself. For this the furnaces of a thousand laboratories are burning, and the reactions wrought in them are carefully studied by as many anxious chemists. Such

questions are not to be decided by a knowledge of properties merely, but must be determined by arguments based upon principles, laws and analogies which have been wrought out by attentive and persistent examination of properties and phenomena, but which, outreaching the experiments which evolved them, form the foundation of new theories. Arguments are to be derived from principles which underlie the various modes of formation; from the laws which govern chemical reactions; and from the analogies presented by seriated position. Work like this is now being done by the chemist. To understand the published researches of such men as Brodie, and Hoffman, and Gibbs, the student must bring to the study of their memoirs, not so much a mind stored with facts about oxygen and oxides, or of other elements and compounds, as a mind disciplined by the study of the principles and laws already established by the examination of such facts.

It thus appears that the description of elements and compounds is but the data upon which chemical science rests. Or, let us state the converse of this principle: the logical development of facts, principles, theories and laws, which constitutes the science of modern chemistry, may be based upon a knowledge of the properties of simple and compound bodies. We thus see that the description of the physical and chemical properties of bodies, which too often monopolizes the entire course of study in chemistry, is but a step preparatory to the study of that science. As arithmetic is absolutely essential in itself, yet only preparatory to the study of algebra; or as the rules of grammar are necessary to the reading of the classics, so descriptive chemistry is but a necessary preparation for the study of chemical science.

The question now comes, at what period can the young mind be most benefited by the study of these two phases of chemistry?

Descriptive chemistry is for the most part made up of facts which cannot be bound together by any laws of logical development. Oxygen is colorless, without odor, heavier than air, permanent, magnetic; it has a wide range of affinities; it supports combustion: these are isolated facts, made known by separate experiments. No single principle underlies them all; no set of principles form the basis of an argument; they are separate inferences from as many different phenomena. To see the phenomena is to learn the facts; to know the facts is only to remember what was seen. Perception and memory are the only activities of the mind essential to the acquisition, and these are the powers which

ought to be trained in early youth. Moreover, the experiments which impart a knowledge of the simple qualities of bodies are a source of exquisite delight to the young; they are but a passing pleasure to the adult. The minds of young pupils easily assimilate such knowledge because it is so perfectly adapted to their wants; the minds of those more advanced in years and study retain it only by most laborious effort, because they have reached a stage of development to which it does not essentially minister. The chemist who has never lectured to a class of young boys or girls, has yet to meet his most appreciative audience. The fresh delight with which they witness his experiments, and the ease with which they follow his inferences, are quite surprising to one who has been compelled to present the same elementary truths to minds of greater maturity. Those who are developing the Pestalozzian methods have discovered the value of chemical descriptions in the education of young classes, and it is a fact, full of significance, that the primary teacher is quietly appropriating to her purposes, the subjects which have, to so large a degree, filled up the lectures of the college professor. I believe that experience will bear witness to the truth of the statement that a clear and permanent knowledge of those physical and chemical properties of elements and compounds, usually described in mineral chemistry, can be more readily attained, and with better mental discipline, by boys under the age of fifteen years, than by the members of the senior class in college.

Now suppose this preparatory course taken out and put where it would thus seem to belong, what remains for the college course in chemistry? Divest it of what is purely elementary, and the unparalleled disproportion between fact and principle no longer exists. Without the fragmentary and statistical nature which it must otherwise always possess, it will be able to give a mental culture not inferior to that from any other study in the course.

For, the divine architect has wrought according to the laws of a divine logic; and chemistry, investigating the laws which underlie the divine plan, is not true to itself unless the development of its principles conform to the laws of logic.

Moreover, such is the mathematical precision with which the various parts of the material world have been conjoined, that to a very great extent, the principles of chemistry may be evolved by algebraic demonstrations.

Add to this the fact that chemistry, above all other sciences, contributes largely to the growth of our modern civilization, determining the status of nations among each other, and that for this reason it may rank among the social and political forces of the age.

And finally, do not forget that the phenomena of nature constitute the language in which she speaks to the student of her works. The study of chemistry is therefore the study of a language more elegant than Greek or Roman dialect, whose translation reveals a loftier philosophy and a purer poetry.

I have thus briefly indicated four characteristics which, when combined, enable the lecturer on general chemistry to present a science as logical in its arrangement, and as severe in its demonstrations as any other, and whose beauty and philosophy are unsurpassed. Relieve him from the drudgery of mere elementary training, and you liberate the science of chemistry from the dead weight of needless statistics and mere description, and lift it to regions of clear logic, of severe demonstration, of beautiful poetry, and of social and political philosophy.

THE HISTORICAL MONUMENTS AND MEMORIALS OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

BY DANIEL S. MARTIN, A. M.,

Professor of Ancient Classics in Rutgers Female College.

GENTLEMEN OF THE CONVOCATION: The subject which I desire for a few minutes to bring before you, is that of the existing memorials of our country's early periods, viewed in their relation to education, their importance to history, their influence on national character, their present condition, and the need of their preservation from ruin and decay.

In the study of history, hardly any one can fail to recognize the fact that in the life of a nation, as in that of an individual, early associations and memories have a great and controlling power. The loves and hatreds, the aspirations and hopes, indeed we may say the prevailing genius and character, of almost any people, may generally be traced to their origin far back in the early beginnings of that nation's history. The Golden Age, to which humanity has so often loved to look back, with vain regret and yet with pride and glory, enshrines the memory and the conception of early leaders and founders, to whom, in all its later career, the nation looks as examples and as guides. The love of country in the citizen, is almost inseparably interwoven with that country's history; and expresses itself evermore in connection with the great men, and great events, that have given to the nation its reminiscences and its character.

It is none the less true that a community may sink and decay so that these things lose their power. When faith and justice are gone, when a people are given over to the love of luxury and gold, then indeed no historic memories can quicken again to nobleness and life: but who shall deny that one great instrument employed by Providence to maintain integrity and virtue among nations, and so to uphold them as long as possible from ruin, is this elevating influence that springs from the memory of a noble past?

In the present day, we in America look but little to the past, and much to the present, and the future. In this, we are partly wise, and we are partly unwise. We are wise, in so far as we thus learn an independence of the spirit which cleaves to bygone institutions, that worships the maxims and arrangements of antiquity. We are unwise, in so far as we turn away from the remembrance of the early history and spirit of our people, and forget the lessons that we ought to remember and to love.

We dwell so much on our coming greatness,—this broad land, stretching from ocean to ocean, our vast immigration, our mighty grain-clad prairies, our mountain mines of silver and of gold, commerce, agriculture, manufactures, canals, railroads, telegraphs, all pressing upon us in the present, and promising material greatness in the future,—that we have no time and no thought to give to the days that are gone. “Let the dead past bury its dead,” is the cry, “we must live in the future. This is an age of steam and telegraphs, and we cannot stay to look back.”

Nay, not so. Whence springs our greatness? How came we to this age of progress, this future of promise? Is it not the out-growth of those days when we were few and feeble, poor and struggling, yet rich and strong and glorious in impulses of nobleness and faith? Let us beware how we lose the memories of the past, lest we lose its spirit likewise; and if so, then, alas! for our golden prospects and our lofty hopes!

It has been most truly and forcibly said by Saltonstall, that “We have an advantage over all nations, in being able to trace our history from the beginning. We have no fabulous age; but it has more romance in it, than any that has ever been written.” What a novel and peculiar feature is this, in our national life! No mists of gray antiquity limit our retrospect: no dim uncertainty hides from our view the early development of American civilization. We alone, of all the earth’s great nations, are able to read, page by page, the authentic record of our planting and our growth.

What a heritage have we as a nation! Our old heroes are no demi-gods, clothed in Plutonian armor, and riding enchanted steeds. They were men of like passions with us, strong only in their faith in God and liberty. They were our fathers and grandfathers, and “their sepulchres are with us unto this day.” Their battle-fields lie around us; the works thrown up by their hands we may behold, and we may preserve, if we will. Shall we do so?

Or shall we forget it all, and let the winds and the rain and the frost obliterate the memorials of our Heroic Age? Does it not seem one of the high duties and privileges of the American citizen to preserve whatever is left us of these hallowed scenes? Far be it from us to speak the praises of the heroic past, and yet overlook its spirit, as is so often done, among nations that cling to the forms of antiquity. But does it not both indicate, and propagate, an ungrateful, unhallowed neglect of the great deeds of our fathers, for us lightly to suffer the memorials of what they did, to pass away into oblivion? Is it not worse still, far worse, that commerce and modern improvements should presume, with vandal hands, to destroy these relics of our glory?

This has been done, alas! too often. Where are Dorchester Heights, whence first Washington, by strange providential aid of tempest and storm, forced Howe to abandon Boston? How can an American answer that they have been leveled down to make way for "modern improvements?" Where is the house of John Hancock? It has given place to a brown stone palace which stands a dark reproach to Boston, "a hissing and an abomination" to every true American. Where is the old City Hall of New York, more than any other spot on this continent, the birth-place of the government of the United States? A strong and handsome edifice,—as full of associations as Independence Hall in Philadelphia, or the old Cradle of Liberty,—how can we confess that it was torn down by sacrilegious hands? Some other structure was erected in its stead,—we know not and care not what, were it as beautiful as the temple of Solomon, as enduring as the pyramids!

The stone of its balcony, on which Washington stood when he took the oath as the first president of the republic, and delivered his first inaugural address,

"I know not in what fit
Of mercy spared the general destruction,"

has been appropriately cared for by the Commissioners of Charities and Correction, and placed, with a suitable inscription, in the entrance hall of Bellevue Hospital. All thanks to the commissioners: they have saved a few relics of that building, the destruction of which was an outrage on all posterity, and a robbery of all history so long as America shall be remembered as a nation.

In the city limits of New York, one redoubt, of Revolutionary

character, has lately been restored by the commissioners of the Central Park, and now stands as one of the choicest ornaments of that beautiful spot. The Long Island Historical Society have been for some time very earnestly engaged in investigating all that pertains to the battle of Long Island, and will ere long publish a work giving full accounts of this event, and of its remaining memorials.

The monument to the martyrs of the Wallabout prison-ship stands in Trinity churchyard, with that of Captain Lawrence, of the "Chesapeake" frigate. This subject of the prison-ship in the Wallabout bay has attracted, within recent years, some careful research from one or two earnest and able gentlemen. Beyond this, there is very little attention paid to such Revolutionary and colonial memorials as yet remain in the vicinity of New York. The house No. 1 Broadway, so long the head-quarters of Washington, is indeed still standing,—its basement occupied as a liquor saloon,—but no man can tell how soon it too may be destroyed, unless some public sentiment can be aroused in regard to the subject, and steps taken to secure the preservation of what is left us. The demolition of the old City Hall has crushed and discouraged, to a great extent, what historical and antiquarian interest did exist in New York; and some effort may be needed in order to awaken it again.

I need not allude to the historic character of almost the whole of the Hudson river, so full of associations of the most romantic interest. Yet, with the exception of the monuments erected to the memory of the captors of Andre, and the preservation, by the State, of Washington's head-quarters at Newburgh, there are scarcely any memorials. One point, illustrating the perfectly reckless disregard of this subject, ought to be mentioned here.

After General Howe's expedition up the river to coöperate with Burgoyne, at which time he captured Verplanck's point, and occupied the Highlands for nearly three weeks; on learning the result of the battle of Saratoga, he returned again to New York. When our forces had re-occupied the works, General Putnam urged upon Congress the necessity of fortifying the Hudson with greater care. The Committee appointed in response to this request, examined West Point, and recommended that a fort and batteries be erected, and a chain extended across the river. Accordingly, in February, 1778, a contract was entered into with the Sterling Iron Works for the making of a chain five hundred yards long,

each link of two feet in length, for which the United States agreed to pay £440 for every ton weight of chain. A portion of this chain was, some years since, raised from the river and sold to the Cold Spring Foundry Association, and worked up! Comment is needless.*

It is not only, however, around the Hudson, that associations of our history abound. No part of the country, perhaps, is so full of memories as the district around Lakes George and Champlain. Here, however, in this region of the northern lakes, we have abundant reminiscences of three separate periods of our nation's danger and deliverance; the old French war, the struggle of the Revolution, and the war of 1812.

The woods from Ticonderoga to the head of Lake George, are filled with grass-grown earthworks, chiefly thrown up by the English and colonial forces under Abercrombie, on their march to the dreadful assault on Ticonderoga, in 1758. At Caldwell are still marked the site of the old magazine of Fort William Henry, and the garrison well, which is in a neglected state, filled up with the debris of years. I have traced the earthen outworks of the fort for long distances around the hotel, through the pine woods that have grown up around and upon them. The same is the case at Fort George, a mile further south. Here, however, the central stone fort is still standing, though rapidly falling into ruin from the disintegrating effects of the frost. When I saw it two years ago, only at one point did the stone wall retain its smooth perpendicular surface; whether even that portion is still intact, I cannot say.

In a letter which I have but lately received from a gentleman residing at Fort Edward, in reply to an inquiry on this subject, the following passage occurs:

"Fort Edward is no exception to the rule that our old memorials are sadly neglected. It is a marked illustration. A stranger, casually visiting the site of the old fort, would probably never suspect the fact, unless he were informed.

"I know not of any monument, or any visible evidence that this is the Fort Edward 'that lives in story!'"

At Ticonderoga, as I am informed by a gentleman well known for his literary and historical interest, it is possible even now to stand where Ethan Allen stood, when, "in the name of the great

* At the close of the paper, Dr. Woolworth corrected this statement by mentioning that two links of this chain were preserved, and are now in the State Library.

Jehovah and the Continental Congress," he demanded the surrender of that already historic and hard-won post.

But even here, this doubly interesting spot is disappearing under the ravages of time, and the more cruel ravages of human hands. Do we mourn that the ignorant Arabs of the Nile should repair their poor huts with the capitals and sculptures that once were the glory of Egypt's temples? Look nearer home, and see the frost-loosened stones of historic Ticonderoga wrought into the fences of neighboring farms! The want of historic interest among our people is a shame and a reproach. In the dark ages and dark places of the world, this ignorance and neglect is to be mourned over, while it cannot be censured; but what shall be said of it in free and civilized America?

At Plattsburgh, again, we find the scene of the fierce four days' struggle on the Saranac, in 1814, and of McDonough's victory on the lake. Yet, so far as I know, there is no monument or memorial of either of these events, so important in the history of the United States.

Time will not allow any further allusion to the historic associations with which this State is so filled. I can only refer, in closing these illustrations, to the fact that in this very city there still stands, or did stand, a few years ago, the old house on North Pearl street, in which General La Fayette stayed at the time of the Revolution, and which he visited and recognized on his return to America in 1825. Such buildings as these are things to cherish and preserve; things that no people should ever be willing to see removed or destroyed.

Having alluded now to a few out of the many scenes and objects of historic interest in New York, I would urge the importance of their preservation in three respects, in regard to American history.

These points are:

- I. The influence of these associations on the present generation;
- II. On posterity;
- III. On the scientific completeness of the historic record.

I. In all education, history must ever hold a very high and important place; and while general history should be studied and taught with spirit and with faithfulness, the specific events that have shaped the character and destiny of each separate nation, must always have, for that nation, an interest peculiar and unequalled. American history must be a study of great import-

ance to American educators. If it be true, as has been claimed, that the example and influence of an heroic ancestry are a saving and ennobling power to a nation, do we not need in this day to cherish and retain the memory of the deeds of our fathers? There is much to fear in the great external prosperity which America so rejoices in. Ever in the past, great national wealth has been perilous to national virtue. It has formed classes and castes among the citizens of the state, separated in condition, in feeling, in interest, by the ever-widening gulf that divides poverty from wealth. Jealousies, dissensions, opposing policies, sordid ambitions, agitate the nation within, and weaken it against danger from without. Such has always been the tendency of a great development of power and wealth. If we would avert such a result in our own loved land, it must be by the use of every means known to Christianity and patriotism. First, indeed, must come the conserving and purifying power of the gospel; then the memories of our heroic past.

For educators,—for those engaged at whatever stage, in training the minds of American youth,—I believe that this subject has an importance not sufficiently appreciated. Our past should be studied, not merely as one of the most interesting chapters of history, not only as a grand epoch in the course of human progress, least of all as a ground of national exclusiveness, boastful pride, or that hatred of England which too often seems regarded as the first mark of a true American. Nay, far otherwise. "History," says Lord Bolingbroke, "is philosophy, teaching by examples." "I would rather define it," says the lamented Professor Amos Dean, "as God teaching by examples." Thus all history should be studied for its lessons,—the teaching of God to nations,—and those lessons will naturally have their greatest force in that history which is peculiarly our own.

It is the high province of the educator to mould the sentiments and views of his pupils; and what opportunity is there in teaching American history, to present the contrast between the heroic devotion of our fathers, and the gold-worship and fashion-worship that have now such power? Let us seek to impress upon the youthful minds of our land more of the example of a patriotic ancestry. May we not feel sure that it would stimulate the love of country and the spirit of earnestness and faithfulness? Might it not soften even the bitterness of party strife, and show our youth that there are nobler aims and higher hopes than those of

the headlong race for wealth and influence? Let us remember, and let us teach, what it cost our fathers to win for us the blessings that we boast and prize; and to do this, let us preserve what memorials their mouldering hands have left, as silent and solemn witnesses to their fidelity and our responsibility.

II. The value of these memorials to posterity.

The United States are growing and expanding as no nation has ever done before. The whole broad continent, from ocean to ocean, will be more or less filled with a civilized population in the first century of the Republic. Under our representative government, the sceptre of power is fast passing away from the East to the new and mighty West. The grandchildren of the men of the Revolution are born far away from the scenes of our history, out in those boundless regions where, as has been so beautifully said, "the life of the prairie blends with it memories of the mountain and the sea." Yet we are one country, and one people; one in history, one in aspiration, one in destiny. Think we that those children of the West will not return to view for themselves the historic places of their country, and the graves of their hero ancestors? Yes, as long as we are one people, as long as the spirit of the Pilgrims and the Revolution shall remain, so long will all these scenes be dear to all true citizens of the republic.

Yet it is for us, in this generation, to say whether they shall be preserved, or whether, in long future years, when Americans shall come from the prairies and lakes, from the Rocky Mountains and the Golden Gate, to view for themselves the places where Washington camped, and Wayne fought, and Burgoyne laid down his arms, they shall find that naught remains to mark those places where American liberty was gained.

It will not do for us to delay; each winter's frost, each summer's rain, helps to destroy what no time, no care, no wealth, no labor, can restore to us again forever.

But it is not only in purely historic and patriotic aspects that these memories are precious to our country. They are adapted to awaken more than antiquarian interest, more than national pride,—even the grateful and wondering acknowledgment of that Providence that planted and that saved us. How often, during the Revolutionary war, did the hand of God seem to shelter our armies and secure our victories, even through the very agencies of nature herself; not less truly, though less miraculously, than in the course of Israel of old. Is there here nothing to cherish

and retain? Nay, to our latest generations, these memories should be preserved with gratitude and awe. We are bound to be faithful to the pure faith that strengthened our fathers' hearts and hands, and to the principles of universal and unqualified freedom which Providence thus maintained.

When the chosen people had fought and toiled through the wilderness to the banks of the stream that divided them from the promised land, the last great miracle remained to be performed. But before it took place, the God that had guided them as he has guided us, directed their leader to secure to the people the everlasting remembrance of their great deliverance and help. They were to take up twelve stones from the bed of the river, where the priests' feet stood firm, and deposit them in the place where they should first encamp on the farther shore. "That when your children ask their fathers in time to come, saying 'What mean ye by these stones?' ye shall say unto them, that the waters of Jordan were dried up before the ark of the covenant of the Lord; when it passed over Jordan, the waters of Jordan were dried up. And these stones shall be for a memorial unto the children of Israel forever."

III. The importance of preserving these relics in behalf of general history.

As our country grows in power and greatness, its history must become of increasing interest to the world at large—to the world of scholars in every land. To the student of history, what experience is so stirring and so interesting as to be able to visit the scenes and to behold the time-worn monuments of the great events of the past?

The preservation of the remaining memorials of our history is a debt which this generation owes not only to itself, not only to posterity, but even to the world.

There is one additional aspect of this subject which presents itself here. When we go back to the very planting of the colonies, we have not yet exhausted the ancient remains of America. Scattered through the length and breadth of the continent are the memorials of previous races to us unknown. Their strange structures and sepulchral mounds, antedating the roving Indian tribes, speak of a civilization sunk into oblivion. At this period of the world, no problems have greater or more startling interest than those that have but lately arisen in regard to pre-historic man. The beginnings of civilization, the early condition and character

of society, the migration of nations,—these questions begin to complicate themselves with yet wider and more anxious inquiries, as to the antiquity of the human race, and the dates of the Ages of Stone and Bronze.

Alas, how much have history and ethnology lost, in the long course of centuries, through the ignorance and violence that have prevailed in the world touching objects valuable as remains or illustrations of the past! How many ancient buildings, how many buried treasures, how many precious inscriptions, have been lost or destroyed for the want of any appreciation of their future importance! Shall this process go on in our own day, and among our own people? Nay, shall we not rather begin thus late, to care for the interests of science and of history in coming years and coming ages? Are we not bound to do so, by every consideration that can influence either scholars or patriots?

The specific manner in which this work may be undertaken, is a point, gentlemen of the Convocation, that I desire to leave with you. There are several ways in which action might be taken, of which a few may be briefly suggested.

(1.) It has been proposed that the several historical societies in the State,—those of New York, Long Island, and Buffalo,—should form some plan of coöperative action, to procure, by purchase, some of the more prominent sites. In this endeavor, aid might perhaps be hoped for from the New York Society of the Cincinnati. This method, however, while it might, in some degree accomplish the desired end, would nevertheless be unable to do very much. These societies have their head-quarters at the two extremities of the State, and their members reside for the most part in the large cities, remote from the great majority of historic fields.

Still less can the work be done by individual effort in any form. The means are inadequate to the end. Some wide organization is needed to take this matter in charge. It seems passing strange that, while in so many of our States there are State Historical Societies, this great commonwealth of New York, richer in scenes and objects of archæological and antiquarian interest than perhaps any other in the Union, should have no such association. Is it not time that some such society were formed? and what body of citizens, gentlemen of the Convocation, could more appropriately take it into consideration than those assembled here?

The colleges and academies of the State would furnish a body of cultured men, representing every part of the country. Through them, local facts could be ascertained, and local interest awakened. Meeting from year to year in this central and most historic city, any facts of value could be announced and discussed, views could be interchanged, and measures concerted for action.

There is yet one other suggestion which has some great advantages. To the Regents of the University are entrusted the care of the State Library and Cabinet, the interests of education, the formation of a collection of Indian antiquities, and the monuments and history of the boundary lines of the State. If the preservation of antiquities other than those of the Indian race, and the identification of localities other than the boundary lines, would fall within their power, it would certainly seem to belong most appropriately to their sphere. The board are the guardians of so many related interests,—of education, of science, of literature,—that it would seem only to add completeness to their work, if the department of archaeology and history could be also intrusted to their care.

I know not, however, why these several suggestions might not all be combined. If the Board of Regents could exercise a general superintendence of some such undertaking, and give to it the sanction of their authority, a nucleus would be formed, around which all the various agencies of individual and associated effort could group themselves at once.

But even if no definite action can well be taken at this time, may not each one of us here present, gentlemen of the Convocation, take upon himself the task of ascertaining in his own neighborhood, what historic associations and memorials exist, and of seeking to awaken some public interest, some local pride, in the preservation of what remains?

NORMAL INSTRUCTION IN ACADEMIES.

BY NOAH T. CLARKE, A. M.

Principal of Canandaigua Academy.

A school has two elements, the teacher and the pupil, and like the marriage relation, it cannot well exist if either party be wanting. The latter element, the pupil, is readily and naturally furnished in sufficient numbers, without any of the fostering aid of the State; the former, the teacher, is to be sought for, and when found is to be fitted for his work.

A good school recognizes in these elements a well-defined relation, namely, the power to learn and the power to teach; by which I mean a knowledge on the part of the pupil of the processes and methods of learning, and on the part of the teacher of the true methods and philosophy of instruction, including both teaching and training.

Now without both of these elements in a state of great excellence, no school of a high order is possible. And if the former element be wanting in any essential part, no matter what may be the character of the pupil, the school must, to that extent, fail; while, if the teacher be thoroughly qualified for his work, he can make tolerable success with very stubborn and unpromising material.

We may honestly differ in our estimate of the teacher, his qualifications and his work; yet doubtless upon this point, that he should, by a special course of training and instruction, be prepared for that work, we are in entire agreement.

The time has passed in the educational history of this State, at least, when the simple knowledge of a text-book is a sufficient guaranty of the ability to teach a good school. The good teacher now, by common consent, must have higher qualifications. He must understand the philosophy of the child's mind, and the processes indicated in nature by which that mind must be reached and developed. He must also comprehend the moral and emotional nature of the child, and must be able to so communicate his own intellectual and moral strength and purity, that the child may assimilate them with his own being, and so bear his visible impress.

Now it is not to be denied that the true teacher is one of an especial gift; "And he gave some evangelists, and some pastors and teachers;" and without doubt the great cause of failure, or of partial failure of so many who have attempted to teach, has been owing to the fact that they tried to do what, in the order of providence, it was never intended they should do. An English dray-horse has no superior in a heavy truck upon a paved road, but he would make a sorry figure in playing Mazeppa upon a stage; and so a man may understand "all mysteries and all knowledge, and have all faith," and yet, as a teacher, be absolutely nothing.

We all know and deplore the fact that a great number if not a majority of those who teach; especially in our elementary schools, do it merely for the sake of the little stipend it brings them, without even claiming that they have any fondness or fitness for their work.

Says the commissioner of Orange county, in his report of 1867, "Not more than one-sixth of the male teachers intend to follow teaching as a permanent employment. Most are farmers' sons, who teach during a few otherwise idle months of winter. Many of the females also, make teaching an auxiliary or stepping-stone to the happy state of matrimony."

There was a time, which time most of us can well remember, when many of those who, during the winter, taught the district schools, pursued, during the summer, various transient avocations, such as peddling, negro-dancing and vagrancy, and the like. But we have fallen upon better times. The efficient supervision of the common schools of the State for last twenty years has put these things into the history of the past, and has given a good degree of dignity and respect to the teacher's work.

Now admitting that the true teacher is *born* and not *made*, yet it is ever to be borne in mind that he is *born to be made*, and without which making and training, his birthright might well be sold for a mess of pottage.

To this conclusion, then, are we brought: that good teachers must, by special training and course of studies, be fitted for their work. True, indeed, there is a public sentiment prevailing to a considerable extent that does not recognize this fact, and claims that with all our improved facilities for instruction and the multiplied appliances of our schools, "the former days were better than these;" but we know they speak not wisely concerning this, for whatever else has been done or undone, of this there is no

question, that our schools, of all grades, have made progress. No one claims that the educational system of this or of any other State, is yet perfect; yet our noble State stands to-day, in her educational arrangements, upon a higher level than ever before, and this result has been reached by the efforts made for the last forty years to educate teachers for their profession.

Previous to 1827, no plan had been adopted by the State to prepare teachers for the common schools, and up to the present time there is none in reference to those of our higher schools and academies, except such as may incidentally grow out of the normal schools, though it is hoped that the steps already taken by this Convocation, and the suggestions made in the excellent paper* upon "Normal Instruction in Colleges," just read before this Convocation, will result in some definite action which shall meet a great and important want.

It may not be improper here to refer, for a few moments, to the opinion of some of those who have been in authority in this State, upon the subject of the education of teachers.

Governor De Witt Clinton, in 1819, in his message to the Legislature, said: "The most durable impressions are derived from the first stages of education; ignorant and vicious preceptors must have a most pernicious influence upon the habits, manners, morals and minds of our youth, and vitiate their conduct through life." In 1820, he said: "The education of our youth is an important trust, but it is too often committed to unskillful hands. Liberal encouragement ought to be dispensed for increasing the number of competent teachers." In 1825, he again says: "In furtherance of this invaluable system (cause of education generally), I recommend to your consideration the education of competent teachers." And again, in 1826: "I therefore recommend a *seminary* for the education of teachers in those useful branches of knowledge which are proper to engraft on elementary attainments."

And standing to-day in these places made sacred by the public life of this pure and sagacious statesman; and here, too, in this city, where the great west has, through a magnificent highway planned and executed by his mighty genius, poured her golden treasures into the lap of our noble Hudson; and where, too, the first seminary like the one his mind conceived has been planted, and has, for nearly twenty years, scattered its blessings all over our

* By Professor North, of Hamilton College.

great State; let us admiringly and reverently render our homage of gratitude to the memory of De Witt Clinton, who has left the stamp of his transcendent genius alike upon the commercial and educational interests of the State.

In 1827, the Hon. John C. Spencer, of the Senate committee, said: "Our great reliance for nurseries of teachers must be placed on our colleges and academies." During the same session, he reported a bill to add \$150,000 to the Literature Fund, the object of which was (in the language of the report), "to promote the education of young men in those studies which will prepare them for the business of instruction, and every citizen who has paid attention to it knows that the incompetency of the great mass of teachers is a radical defect which impedes the whole system, frustrates the benevolent designs of the Legislature, and defeats the wishes of all who feel an interest in disseminating the blessings of education. Competent teachers of common schools, therefore, must be provided. The *academies* of the State furnish the means of making that provision."

The board of Regents of 1828 (of which board one* honored member yet remains, and is with us to-day), said: "The academies have become, in the opinion of the Regents, what it has always been desirable they should be, *fit seminaries* for imparting instruction in the higher branches of English education, and especially for qualifying teachers of common schools;" and the Superintendent of Public Instruction, a year or two later, forcibly adds: "If the required information to fit a person for teaching can be obtained in the academies, *sound policy and good economy* are in favor of relying upon them for the training of teachers."

Governor Marcy, in 1834, in his annual message, used the following language: "Common schools are justly entitled to the first consideration and the most liberal patronage. Yet seminaries of a more elevated rank, ought also to be sustained, for many reasons, and for this particularly, that upon them we must, in a great measure, depend for competent teachers of the common schools."

The history of the educational policy of the State is well known. It was in pursuance of such views as have been recited that, in 1830, eight academies, one in each judicial district, were selected, in which teachers' departments were organized. Shortly after, eight others were required to maintain similar departments, and the number was soon thereafter increased to twenty-three.

* Vice-Chancellor Gulian C. Verplanck of New York.

In 1855, a radical change was made in these departments, and the policy then adopted by the Regents has been substantially pursued by them to the present time.

If the academies, through their *normal*, or *teachers' departments*, have, for the last thirty years, been able to supply teachers for our common schools to any considerable extent, and teachers, too, of a higher standing and character than otherwise would have been obtained, they have done a work which has richly compensated the State for all the aid it has rendered them. And that they have done such a work, none can deny, for it has become a matter of record.

The academies may not have done as much, or, what they have done, as well as could have been desired; yet they have done what they could. And what they have done so well in the past, they can continue to do in the future; and *must* do, with all their power, if educated teachers are to be furnished for the common schools.

With one of those eight academies first honored with the organization of the "Teachers' Departments," it has been my privilege to be connected thirty-one years; five as a student, and twenty-six as a teacher; and I cannot better speak of the great aid rendered to the cause of popular education in preparing and training teachers, than by a brief reference to the course pursued in that institution.

Upon entering Canandaigua Academy, in April, 1837, I found the teachers' department in full operation. The "teachers' class" numbered about *thirty* young men, and was mainly under the instruction of the Principal, the late Mr. Henry Howe. The time of the class was about half of it spent in the "teachers'" course of study. That course consisted of studies and recitations of the common branches; a daily drill upon the best methods of teaching; lectures upon the theory of teaching, and also upon geology, natural and mental philosophy, physical geography and history, upon warming and ventilation, the laws of health, teachers' associations, schoolhouses and blackboards; also upon the teacher's social habits and duties as a member of the community in which he might be placed.

For three summers, of twenty-two weeks each, I was permitted to enjoy the privileges of that class; and I am free to say that, although I had taught school before, yet I found the instruction of that course of incalculable value; and if I have ever been able to accomplish anything as an instructor of youth, I owe it, in no

small degree, to the exercises of that teachers' class. The members of that department were eagerly sought for the best class of winter schools, and at wages from ten to thirty-three and one-third per cent higher than the average of other teachers of the county.

This department was maintained under similar circumstances, and with but little interruption, until about 1848. In that year, the trustees of the academy spoke of the teachers' department as follows: "A 'teachers' class' was first organized in this academy in 1830. Since that time nearly *five hundred young men* have entered this department." It is true that the members of this department were not then, as now, required to pledge themselves to teach common schools for any length of time; yet most, if not all of them, did engage in teaching more or less. Upon the resignation of Mr. Howe, in 1849, my relation to the academy became more intimate, and since 1853, when I assumed the charge of the institution, I have been entirely familiar with this department of instruction, as it has fallen mainly within my own sphere of duty. This department has since that time, as well as before, been a distinct organization. The class has always been under a course of special training, similar, as far as it goes, to that of the State Normal School. This course has always consisted, first, of thorough reviews and drills in the elementary studies: second, of familiar lectures upon the theory of teaching and such other subjects as were pertinent to the teachers' work: third, of actual practice in teaching classes, under the eye of the instructor. The members of these classes have also been required to attend upon the recitations of the other teachers in the academy, thus profiting by their ripe experience. At the same time they have been pursuing their ordinary studies under teachers who, it is fair to assume, were skilled in their profession. During the last eighteen years, nearly four hundred young men have been members of this department, making in all some nine hundred young men who, in one academy, by this most wise and judicious provision of the State, have been aided in their preparation for the teachers' work; and it is but simple justice and truth to say that the great majority of them took high positions among the teachers of our common schools, while not a few have proved themselves able and efficient instructors in our high schools and academies. And a patriotic impulse compels me to add, that of the one hundred and twenty-five young men of those who had been under my own tuition in the academy, in the ten years previous to 1864, who cheerfully

gave themselves to their country's service in the late rebellion, sixty-seven of them had been good and tried members of the "teachers' class," of which number twelve now sleep with the patriot dead.

It has ever been the aim of this institution to impress upon all her pupils, as a first truth, that there are no accomplishments or attainments that can take the place of a sound and complete elementary education; and that the more complete and extended that education, the better the teacher. Therefore, the first work has been to anchor the student upon sound elementary learning, and upon that foundation to rear the superstructure of the teacher's profession.

Now what has been done (and I speak it with becoming modesty) by one academy, has doubtless been accomplished by many others, for those institutions which have been thus honored by the Regents with this department have, in the main, as faithfully and as successfully discharged their trusts.

It must be to the board of Regents especially gratifying, not only to witness, as they do, the great success of their long and well directed efforts to elevate the standard of the teacher's qualifications, and consequently the character of all our schools, but to receive, as they do constantly from those in authority, unsolicited testimony of the wisdom of their action in establishing and continuing the normal departments in the institutions under their care.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction, in his report of 1866, says: "That these classes have done and are doing good, no one can doubt." In the same report, the commissioner of one county (Allegany), says: "The academies in this county have furnished a large number of first class teachers; but our first grade teachers leave for other States, where they get better pay." In another county (Cayuga): "What we need is the common school, academy and college. These liberally sustained, and there is no necessity for any other institutions of learning. Our very best teachers are derived from the teachers' classes in our academies, and I think the wisdom displayed by the Regents in their selection of schools to instruct such classes has been praiseworthy."

Another commissioner, in the same report (Oxford), says: "There is probably no institution of the kind in the State in which teachers receive a more practical and thorough training for their work than in this academy." Another (Champlain): "Many good teachers

of common schools have received their fitting in this institution." Another (Cortland): "The teachers' classes are rendering valuable aid in qualifying the teachers of the county." And another (Genesee Wesleyan): "I am pleased to say that this institution has sent out some of the best teachers, those who are an honor to the profession and an honor to the institution."

But it is needless to multiply this evidence, which I have taken at random from the report alluded to. From such testimony, as well as from common observation, it is clear that the academies have been becoming more and more efficient in this department of labor, and are to-day doing a better work than ever before.

True, indeed, they have not been able, by any means, to supply the demand for good teachers in the State; and if they were all normal schools, sending out twenty well qualified teachers per year, the want would not be half met. According to the report of the Regents of 1866, there are about 36,000 students in the academies of this State. Deducting 15,000 as primary pupils, there remain 21,000 academic students. Now if twenty per cent of these should, each year, be sent out as teachers, they would not furnish a moiety for the schools of the State, even if all remained in the State and devoted themselves to teaching for a term of years.

But it is ever to be remembered that New York does not pay her teachers as well as many other States; and hence there is a constant depletion of the ranks of our best teachers to supply the greater demand elsewhere.

It has doubtless, hitherto, been too much taken for granted by the teachers in our academies that their work was purely academic, and therefore they have, to a certain extent, neglected that preparatory work which must ever form the basis of all scholarship. But this has been the fault of the elementary school, rather than of the academy; for the true position of the academy is not that of a purely elementary institution, but intermediate between the common school and the college; and if the charge of superficialness can be brought against the academy, as it often mostly justly is, it is because of the great lack of elementary training on the part of those who enter the academies from the lower schools, so that the academies, in order to secure any fair proportion of success, have been compelled to very much enlarge their provision for the most elementary instruction.

Granting, therefore, all that may be reasonably claimed of the lack of efficiency of many of the academies, and all that may be claimed, or hoped for, from our magnificent system of common schools, it appears to us evident that from the character of the academies and their relation to the common schools, they must ever furnish, in the main, the facilities needed for the education of the teachers of these schools.

The Regents' report, already quoted, gives the number of academies in the State, subject to their visitation, at 212, owning a property in land, buildings, library and apparatus, of nearly \$3,000,000, and other property of \$400,000, all of it the voluntary contributions of the friends of sound learning. In these 212 academies are employed about 1,200 teachers, of whom it is fair to conclude that they are, in an especial degree, educated and fitted to teach, and more than one-half of whom are teachers by profession who have consecrated their lives to their work.

Now it would seem, in the language already quoted, "to be the dictate of sound policy and good economy" for the State to employ and use these academies, thus endowed and furnished, to prepare teachers for the common schools.

During the year 1866, the teachers' departments in the academies reported about 1,600 members, who, if properly admitted, were at the end of the term prepared to teach a district school, to which they were all pledged. The same year there were reported about 8,000 in attendance at the teachers' institutes at an equal expense. Reducing the amount to days, the number of days of instruction in the "teachers' classes" in the academies was, for that year, about 104,000, and in the institutes about 72,000. The expense of the former was \$15,326; and of the latter, \$14,916.

Now while it is readily admitted that the institute reaches a much larger number of pupils than the normal departments of the academies, and at a much less expense per head, yet it must be conceded that the work of the academy must necessarily be more thorough and permanent than the desultory work of the institute can be.

I would, by no means, undervalue the institutes. They are doing a good work, and to such as are well instructed, the drill and lectures are of value; while they doubtless, to a certain extent, arouse the superficial and ignorant to at least a consciousness of the fact that there is a standing which they have not yet attained.

I have said nothing of normal schools, or seminaries for the training of teachers exclusively, not because I do not recognize them as a most important feature of our educational system, but because I am persuaded that, with all their facilities and excellence, they are never to furnish the teachers for the common schools of the State. I am as ready as any one can be to accord all praise to the excellent institution in this city. I believe it has exerted a power which has been felt for good in every school, academy and college in the State. And I hope it may continue, under the growing munificence of the State, to be a great fountain of intellectual and moral purity, sending out its stream of light and blessedness into every hamlet within our borders. I know its thorough system of instruction, and I know the great worth of the teachers it has sent forth. I am also glad to see the establishment of other normal schools. Let them be supported in the spirit of the act that created them; but I am persuaded that the State, with all its prodigal liberality, as shown in its legislation for the last three years, will never come to see the necessity of planting and sustaining such a number of these institutions as shall be able to educate the great mass of teachers of the district schools.

But very few of the young men who engage in teaching our elementary schools intend to make teaching a permanent occupation:—according to the reports of some of the commissioners, not one in fifty. And how few females, for evident reasons, continue long in teaching, however strongly they may have intended to do so at the first. Until the elementary schools shall pay a qualified teacher wages commensurate with his abilities and attainments, he will seek his calling elsewhere. The boy that stands at the street corner and “shines” your boots for a dime, earns, receives, more per day, than many a good teacher in the common school or academy. Accomplished instructors in academies and colleges, eking out a living upon a sickly salary, see every day, pupils in whom they have wrought their very life and soul, stepping at once into lucrative positions, earning more in a single year than the teacher would consider a competence for life. It is well nigh a wonder that there are any teachers, rather than that there are so many; and it is to be accounted for upon the great principles of humanity, which lead men to consecrate themselves to the work of doing good.

It now only remains to consider the question whether the normal departments in the academies can be made more efficient and satisfactory.

Upon this point I make three suggestions:

1. Let the course of study be so modified that it may be more extended.
2. Let the length of the teachers' term be so varied as to meet the changing circumstances of our school years.
3. Let there be a more complete supervision.

Upon each of these points I wish to make a brief remark.

First. As to the course of study.

There are many young men in our academies pursuing a course of study preparatory to college, usually looking forward to the profession of teaching, the ministry or the law. They all expect to teach more or less, and probably will, in the course of their studies, teach as much or more than those who are not pursuing such preparatory studies. They are our best scholars, and they make our best teachers, and are more worthy of the aid of the State than many who now receive it. Let, therefore, the simple requirements of the Regents, for admission to the "teachers' class," be sufficient attainments to promise fitness for teaching in a given time, and a sincere purpose to obtain a better preparation for the work.

Second. As to the length of the teachers' term.

As the law now stands, the class must continue during at least one-third of the academic year.

In most of our academies the year is made to begin later than formerly; most of them beginning about the last of August or the first of September, from which time to the middle of November, is only about ten or eleven weeks; so that, if teachers' classes are formed in the fall term, which is the time they are most needed, they must run considerably beyond the time of the opening of the winter schools to make out the full term. Now if the academies were permitted to organize "teachers' classes" in the fall term, for not less than ten weeks, and in the other terms for one-third of the academic year, with pay proportioned to the time, a large number of teachers preparing for the winter schools would avail themselves of the opportunity, who are not now reached.

Third. As to supervision.

There can be no doubt that a more rigid supervision on the part of the Regents of these normal departments, and an arrangement by

which they should be brought into more intimate relations with the public schools would work great good. There should be perfect harmony between these departments and the district commissioners; and if the commissioners had power to appoint members of these classes, according to merit, a healthy emulation would be created, which it is believed would exert a favorable influence on both. And if a committee of the Regents, with the Superintendent of Public Instruction, should appoint some suitable person or persons in different parts of the State, to thoroughly inspect these departments, spending one or more days with each class, until they should learn its true condition and work, and report the same to the proper authorities, it would tend to secure, in every academy, a faithful discharge of this trust. It might, indeed, be assumed that the teachers of the academies are above suspicion, and would not need such oversight; but without doubt they, like other men, are fallible, and need some good, healthy, moral stimulus, and from my knowledge of the craft, I think that so much of supervision would do them good.

I have thus, in a hasty manner, put together a few thoughts upon the important topic assigned me, with the hope that we may come more and more to admire the wisdom of the board of Regents who have conceived and kept in operation for so many years, this noble feature of our educational system, and that we, to whom this great work is intrusted, may be incited to more earnest efforts to give additional power to this right arm of service, which we believe is to make grander achievements in the future than it has made in the past.

THE METHOD OF STUDYING AND TEACHING MATHEMATICS.

BY OTIS H. ROBINSON, A. M.,

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We stand at the threshold of a science, with which we would become familiar.

We would open its portals to others, and make all its avenues easy and attractive.

Nothing can be of higher importance at the very entrance than to take a survey of our surroundings; to ask with what preparation we must come, and with what instruments we are to proceed. What, then, are the materials of mathematical reasoning?

The reasoning of the botanist is about the plants of forest and garden; of the zoölogist, about animals. Each of these, in his own sphere, observes the forms, conditions, and modes of individual development. He compares and classifies, and so discovers the plan of the Creator in a particular segment of the universe of matter. From particular observations he proceeds by the inductive process to general laws. His whole science is experimental. The truth of conclusions so formed depends upon acuteness and extent of observation, quite as much as upon correctness of reasoning. Every general proposition may be traced back to something less general, and finally to individual facts of experience. We never hold such general propositions to be universally and necessarily true. We can only, by a very wide and careful observation, establish a high degree of probability. Moreover, every particular inference from such propositions must be affected with the same uncertainty. That a pebble dropped into my ink-stand would sink, I believe to be true, but I do not feel to be necessary.

Now the mathematical process begins just where the inductive ends. It is deductive. It begins with the most universal notions, judgments and beliefs, and descends to the particular. As in the former case, the particular inferences derived by pure logical deduction from the general or universal beliefs, will possess a degree of certainty commensurate only with that of the universal.

Not, therefore, with the formation of general notions and beliefs, but with them when formed, the mathematician must be conversant. From them he takes his departure. An intelligent progress requires a careful analysis of their nature, since they form the foundation of all his reasoning.

They are of two classes: First, those primary and necessary beliefs in reference to space, time and number, which are "inherent in our nature as man, and may be termed a portion of the mechanism by which we are made intelligent beings;" and, Secondly, those general propositions which, though not necessary truths, have been confirmed by so much experience that they may be assumed as certain. Of the former, are the axioms of geometry; things which are equal to the same thing, are equal to each other; two straight lines cannot inclose a space. Of the latter, are the laws generalized from the uniform phenomena of nature; the force of gravity is directly as the mass, and inversely as the square of the distance. The former are judgments necessarily formed and adhered to when we have acquired clear conceptions of space, time and number. They are not formed by induction, but spring up, just as our feeling of harmony springs up from musical sounds. The latter it has been the work of all ages to discover by analysis and comparison. Now, as these clear conceptions in one case, and distinct observations in the other, furnish the materials for acts of judgment, so these judgments furnish the materials for acts of reasoning. Here mathematics begin. By a proper combination of these materials, assumed as truths, we shall attain the desired end. Let us illustrate by an example: Conceive a cannon ball discharged by a given force, at a given angle of elevation into the air; to determine the formulas which will give its position in space at a given distance from the point of discharge, or in a given time from the time of discharge, its velocity at any given point, or time, its whole time before its force will be spent, its relative times for passing different portions of its path, its living force at any given point or time; or, in other words, to find the equations of its path, time, velocity, force, &c. Now, in such a problem (and this is proposed only as an illustration, without reference to the possibility of its solution), the assumed data of our reasoning are the necessary and the contingent truths derived from our conception of space as extension, continuous in all directions, without limits, and yet separable into parts,—from our conception of time as continuous without limits, and yet separable

into parts,—from our conception of the relations of numbers,—from our conception of motion as continuous with a uniform velocity in a right line unless resisted,—from our conception of the air as a constantly resisting medium, of gravity as a constantly operating force, of action as constantly equal and contrary to reaction. It is our business, we say, not to question but to assume these data as true, and combine them for the several ends desired. When these several formulas are reached, our work as mathematicians is done. We have nothing to do with any practical benefit or injury it may give to the gunner, the manufacturer, the chemist, or the astronomer. We begin with no speculation; we end with no inferences. Starting with assumed facts of matter and of mind, we reach the desired relations between these facts, and stop.

With such a view of the data, we pass to the process of reasoning, and the nature of mathematical conclusions. As the data of our reasoning are always assumed, and always clear and simple, and capable of being exactly and rigorously defined, it follows that in the science of mathematics the reasoning process is nearly everything. This process is always pure, and according to the necessary laws of our thought. There is in it no contingency, no probable inferences, no room for doubt and observation. Hence, "it is no wonder that the longest mathematical demonstrations should be so much more easily constructed and understood than a much shorter train of just [inductive] reasoning concerning real facts. The former has been aptly compared to a long and steep, but even and regular flight of steps, which tries the breath, and the strength, and the perseverance only; while the latter resembles a short, but rugged and uneven, ascent up a precipice, which requires a quick eye, agile limbs, and a firm step, and in which we have to tread now on this side, now on that—ever considering as we proceed whether this or that projection will afford room for our foot, or whether some loose stone may not slide from under us."

Of the conclusions of mathematical reasoning there are two classes, corresponding to the two classes of data we have mentioned,—those which we may affirm to be universally and necessarily true; and those about which there is a contingency. The stream cannot rise higher than its source. The conclusion of a formal syllogism will contain just as much of certainty as is contained in the premises, and no more. The chain of reasoning can not be stronger than the weakest link. When therefore any such

data enter in as are derived from experience, such, for instance, as, the index of the refraction of light is uniform for the same media, the conclusion can only reach a high degree of probability.

We can easily conceive this law of optics to be changed; and hence, however correct our reasoning, our conclusions would be false.

The other class of conclusions, those which we claim to be universal in nature and necessary in thought, should receive a more extended notice. They constitute the highest results of pure mathematics. Whence arises their claim to necessity? Let us examine and answer at length. If we say, all horned animals are ruminant: an ox is a horned animal; hence an ox is ruminant: and then say again, the three angles of any triangle are together equal to two right angles: a b and c are the three angles of a triangle; hence a b and c are together equal to two right angles, we shall form two syllogisms precisely similar in form. Now if in some unexplored region, say in the planet Mars, we should stumble upon a new species of oxen with ever so large horns, our first inquiry might be, are they ruminant? But if in the same planet we happen to have a theodolite and a table of logarithms, we might begin a system of triangular surveying without the first thought of uncertainty. In the former case the truth of the conclusion depends upon the extent and correctness of our observation; in the latter we admit its truth not only in all observed cases, but in all possible cases. The same may be said of all the other relations of space as well as of time and number. The primary judgments with which we set out are necessary in thought, and the road over which we travel is direct and unmistakable. Hence pure mathematics are termed exact and universal. There is nothing like this exactness in the sciences of physical phenomena. Here we can at best start from what has been and is true, not from what must be. All the phenomena of cholera may be carefully analyzed and classified; you may search out its causes, its effects, its remedies, but when you have done, what do you know? You can establish no exact and universal equation, not even a perfect definition. So of the science of law, or politics. The principles of human government are too complex and too contingent to be placed in the form of a universal syllogism. So also of history. What should we say of an equation, which had for one member, material and mental resources, motives pro and con, the free will of man and the providence of God, and for the other a political

revolution in the year 1968? But our mathematical conclusions we feel to be true not only here and now, but for all time and space. It is impossible to conceive an arc of a circle in the planet Mars or Neptune, whose tangent is not numerically equal to its sine divided by its cosine.

We are not unaware that this claim to necessity in mathematical thought is denied by a very respectable school of philosophy. In the syllogism in respect to the angles of a triangle we have appealed not to experience, but to judgments which transcend experience. But, says this school from Locke to Mill, there are no judgments which transcend experience. Axioms do not rest upon our necessary modes of thought, but upon external evidence. "They are experimental truths; generalizations from observation. The proposition, two straight lines cannot inclose a space, or, in other words, two straight lines which have once met do not meet again, but continue to diverge, is an induction from the evidence of our senses." In this statement of his belief in axioms, Mr. Mill shows that he relies not on the regulative faculty of the mind, to which we believe certain forms of thought are necessary, and the contrary inconceivable, but on the "evidence of the senses." In defence of this ground of belief, Mr. Mill proceeds: "Experimental proof crowds in upon us in such endless profusion, and without one instance in which there can be even a suspicion of an exception to the rule, that we should soon have a stronger reason for believing the axiom, even as an experimental truth, than we have for almost any of the general truths which we confessedly learn from the evidence of our senses. Independently of *a priori* evidence we should certainly believe it with an intensity of conviction far greater than we accord to any ordinary physical truth."

All this nobody will deny. The evidence of the senses is good so far as it goes; and it goes just so far as Mr. Mill has here said, to make us "believe it with an intensity of conviction far greater than we accord to any ordinary physical truth." What we wish to account for, however, is not merely a very strong belief in axioms as truths relating to objects without the mind, but for their necessity as thoughts relating to objects within the mind. Do we not feel them to be true not only universally of sensible objects, but true necessarily of imagined objects? This feeling of necessity the senses never do and never can give. Day and night have followed each other throughout the universal experience of us all, but nobody feels this succession to be necessary. Mr. Mill rejects

the argument from the inconceivability of the contrary as a test of necessary truth, the great reliance of Whewell, and flies to the evidence of the senses. We would like to know if the senses never deceive! Mr. Mill accepts the conclusion. He does not treat even mathematical axioms as accurately true. With him they are only particular suppositions, hypothetical truths. "We can have full assurance," says he, "of particular results under particular suppositions, but we cannot have the same assurance that these suppositions are accurately true, nor that they include all the data which may exercise an influence over the result in any given instance. It appears therefore that the method of all deductive sciences is hypothetical. They proceed by tracing the consequences of certain assumptions." Is there then, in the sciences no solid ground? Must we reject the axioms of the most exact of all the sciences, geometry, as only so many "particular suppositions," "assumptions," "hypothetical truths?" Where then shall we find the data of a science that cannot be questioned? Let us fall back upon the criterion of necessity, the impossibility not to think so and so, first established by Leibnitz, to distinguish our native notions from those we build up from experience. We shall thus discover these native, these primary beliefs, to be primitive facts of the mind, and not generalized from objects of sense. They do indeed lie hid. We are unconscious of them till they are drawn out by the activity of the mind employed upon the materials of experience, just as we are unconscious of our taste for the beautiful till the mind has been employed upon objects of beauty. "Hence it is," as Hamilton well remarks, "that our knowledge has its commencement in sense, external or internal, but its origin in the intellect."

Having examined the materials, the modes of reasoning, and the conclusions in the science of mathematics, it is important to inquire what is the end or purpose of its pursuit. The first objective end we notice is to determine equations which shall express the exact relations between these materials. If we wish to discover the heights from which bodies fall from their several times of fall, we must first discover the equation between height and time, with the assumed force of gravity. We have already alluded to the problem of finding the equations of the time, path, velocity, force, &c., of a projectile. No form of space, no element of time, no physical phenomenon, is wholly isolated. A curved line is analytically expressed by an equation between cer-

tain variable straight lines. A volume is synthetically expressed by a combination of straight lines. Every number is composed of parts, while it is itself a part of other numbers. The dependence of physical phenomena upon each other is clearer still. The velocity of a falling body depends upon gravity, time and resisting media. The color of thin plates depends upon the wave lengths of a vibrating medium. The nature of a compound depends upon the proportion of its elements. To discover and express the fixed relations between these elements, both statical and dynamical, has been happily styled *concrete mathematics*. The converse of this process, which starts with these equations and determines the unknown elements from their numerical relations to the known, may be called *abstract mathematics*. These two processes comprise nearly or quite the whole of mathematics as a useful science. These equations become the handles by which we may lay hold of the most complex phenomena, and from which we may deduce the conditions of new phenomena, never yet fulfilled in nature. Given, the general laws of optics expressed in proper formulas, and the conditions of an achromatic telescope, or a compound microscope, which never existed in nature, are wrought out with the utmost precision. How many sciences have thus become, in nearly their whole extent, sciences of pure reasoning, "whereby multitudes of truths, already known by induction from as many different sets of experiments, have come to be exhibited as deductions or corollaries from inductive propositions of a simpler and more universal character! Thus mechanics, hydrostatics, optics, acoustics and thermology, have successively been rendered mathematical; and astronomy has been brought by Newton within the laws of general mechanics." Nay, we need not limit the truths "exhibited as deductions" to those "already known by induction from experiment," as Mr. Mill would have us do. A skillful selection and combination of the data will frequently lead us to unperceived and unthought of relations between natural phenomena. The first object of an equation, it is true, is to give precise expression to our acquired knowledge; but when this expression has assumed the most simple and general form, an abstract analysis of it will give a coördination of phenomena, and a solution of particular questions which were entirely beyond the sphere of our acquired knowledge. Phenomena apparently the most isolated, are by this machinery of general equations shown to have the most intimate relation. What could appear to be

less related than the thickness of plates and the colors of the rainbow? How close their dependence when the formulas of optics are properly analyzed! So every science whose materials are capable of exact numerical relations, furnishes equations which gather up truths discovered, and become the keys to truths undiscovered. The tendency, therefore, to render the physical sciences quantitative is not only natural, but in the highest degree advantageous. We do not wonder at Dr. Halley's exclamation that there is something like magic in an equation, bringing to light relations so obscure and unexpected by the changing of a sign, or the transposition of a term!

Another objective end of mathematical reasoning is the verification of hypotheses. This is another important use of the analysis of general equations. Men become impatient in their efforts to interpret nature. Tired of observation and experiment, they attempt to bridge over the secrets of nature with their imagination. Henceforth every step in the chain of reasoning diminishes the probability of the result. It is not indeed within the province of this essay to inquire how first glimpses of great general truths are caught, to tread the pathless way of genius from the midst of well known phenomena across the gulf to the unknown. It is ours to place the stamp of truth or falsehood upon his discoveries. Whenever the data of his discoveries are capable of exact numerical expression the inductive philosopher must submit every shrewd guess, every crude hypothesis, to the crucible of the mathematician. Express his highest generalizations in the form of an equation with mathematical symbols; subject this to analysis; examine all the auxiliary propositions which grow out of its transformations,—you may thus bring it into harmony or discord with well established facts. Does it explain all the phenomena so brought within its reach, it may henceforth be assumed as a new premise for mathematical deduction. The undulatory theory of light is a grand generalization from a vast variety of observations. Can the process be reversed? Can we assume the general formulas of these transverse vibrations of an ethereal medium, of an almost infinite velocity and infinitesimal length, and descend to the solution of particular questions by analysis? Do the formulas which so spring up make the real phenomena appear necessary? Nay more, do they predict phenomena not yet observed? These are the questions which will determine the character of Malus and Fresnel and Young as discoverers. How exact is the verification

of the principles of astronomy! The ancients ever regarded an eclipse with superstitious wonder. Among moderns there is no skeptic even so hardy as to resist the evidence of a shadow on the face of the moon predicted long beforehand.

Will not this discussion throw some light on the failure of the ancients in the physical sciences? None more acute, none more profound than they, in the discovery of mental and moral truth; but in their study of the physical world they appear like children gazing at the workings of some monstrous and inscrutable engine. Imagination was to them a fruitful source of explanation. Was not their failure in some degree due to their ignorance of the use of mathematics as an instrument of verification? False hypotheses met no necessary rejection; true hypotheses were not established beyond the possibility of doubt.

Much has been said both for and against the use of mathematics as an instrument of education. Sir William Hamilton wrote at one time, that "primitive and general notions are the root of all principles,—the foundation of the whole edifice of human science." At another time he wrote, denouncing the study of mathematics, whose great end, subjectively considered, is to acquire the habit of calling up to consciousness, defining and comparing what he himself claims to be the most primitive and general of all notions, as unimproving, not logical, inducing credulity or skepticism, and finally as absurd! How he could have so denounced the Cambridge course is not easily conceived. One cannot read his "Essay on the Study of Mathematics," without feeling that, with the same spirit and with the same amount of research, he might have proved the study of Christian theology to be injurious because it makes men either busybodies or lunatics! So unfair was his reasoning that he himself afterward admitted to a colleague that the same arguments might be used against the study of any other science. There is indeed no means by which the younger class of students can more readily acquire a power over abstract and general terms, and no means by which they can so easily learn to form general notions, and estimate general principles, as by mathematical reasoning. In this respect we must ever agree with the ancients in regarding mathematics as a necessary preliminary to the study of philosophy.

Another result of mathematical discipline, equally important, is the power of long-continued and accurate reasoning. What though the reasoning be deductive; is not the power of consecu-

tive thought the same? Let the pulpit orator and the campaign politician, who wish to hold men's minds by long, connected, and well arranged arguments, first prepare their own by years of drill upon severe demonstrations.

With such a view of the sphere, nature, and end of mathematical reasoning, the mode of studying and teaching it is obvious. In the pursuit of any science the first thing to be learned or taught is the exact signification of the terms used. The subject before us furnishes the clearest illustration of this principle. In no science are the terms more simple, or more general, or more capable of exact definition; in no science does a perfect knowledge of the terms remove more difficulties from the way of subsequent progress. The materials of which the edifice is built must be as familiar to the builder as the letters of the alphabet to the writer. Whatever necessary belief in regard to space, time or number is to be used, whatever contingent truth or law is to enter into his demonstration, let the student learn it, define it, illustrate it, till it becomes a permanent part of his mental furniture. Let him carefully distinguish between what is necessary and what is contingent, so that he may know what conclusions are universally and necessarily true, and what are true only in the constitution of nature as we have observed it. So let him distinguish between pure and mixed mathematics.

In mixed mathematics a careful distinction should always be made between the results of pure observation or experiment, and the deductions from higher known laws,—between what is not mathematics and what is. That the moon is eclipsed when it passes into the shadow of the earth is known by observation alone; that this will happen at any particular time is a mathematical deduction from the laws of the motion of the heavenly bodies.

The precise nature of an equation and the proper mode of interpreting it in common language, forms another important study. Mathematics have a language of their own. In the analysis and resolution of equations, symbols are continually used without a distinct consciousness of the things symbolized. Much power over equations may be acquired, many new truths developed, by frequently stopping and translating the equation in hand from the language of signs and symbols into simple ordinary language, or by constructing it geometrically.

An important part in the pursuit of any science is the study of its history. No one may claim to understand well the present

state of mathematical inquiry unless he can trace the approaches to the present state. When and how did men begin to reason about numbers, and magnitudes, and forms? The earliest authentic history reveals great advancement in this reasoning. Witness the systems of the Indians and the great pyramid of Egypt. The Greeks did not fail to produce a system of geometry more perfect than even their rhetoric or their philosophy. They developed the synthetical method to a state scarcely surpassed by modern times. They gave birth to the analytical. The Arabs preserved and handed down through the night of the world's history the analysis of Diophantus, while the beautiful constructions of Euclid and Apollonius lay hidden by the dust of ages. How wonderful the subsequent union of these methods, and the result! Perfect as was the geometry of the Greeks, it was destined to become but an elementary step to a profounder science. The dawn of a new civilization in Europe found the great centres of learning collecting and studying the scattered evidences of the two methods. Then came Des Cartes, and geometry and algebra, the synthetic and the analytic, were brought between the lids of the same book. From this there was but one step to the transcendental analysis of Leibnitz and Newton. The Greek method of exhaustion was the germ which could not be developed without the analytic process. And what shall we add of the history of the science in its mixed or applied form? No art, ancient or modern, but has felt its influence; no discovery but has called for its aid. Every new coördination of the physical forces in earth, air and sea, calls for a new application of its power.

What we contend for, therefore, in conclusion, is that the teacher of mathematics should himself study them not exclusively, but in their relation to philosophy, to logic, to the arts and to history. In no other way can he have the materials, sphere and nature of mathematical reasoning so distinctly and sharply defined in his own mind as not to confound it in the classroom with other departments of education. We contend further, that in teaching he should not presume that his students, even the best of them, will see all the points in which this science touches other sciences and the arts. Unaided, very few indeed will discover any relation between mathematical formulas and logical forms of thought; between the science of optics and the various arts founded upon it. Not one in a hundred will clearly understand the use of the analysis of formulas as a test of hypothetical discoveries. They may become

very good calculating machines, but not broad scholars. Much has been said about teaching processes and not facts. We would go further and teach, as far as possible, the coördination of processes. We would show how and by whose labor the science of mathematics has grown up amid the other sciences. We would point out the influence of the discovery of every new principle upon the sciences, or the arts of subsequent time, and show the advantage of making the sciences quantitative. This will cost no time, but only an effort. Five minutes sharp discussion, here and there, by a professor whose mind is full of such thoughts as we have ventured to suggest, will rob the mathematical course of that reputation for dryness and tediousness which it so universally bears. Students will cease to be mere reciters and become real inquirers. What is so coördinated with the other departments of a liberal course of study will be continually brought to the mind, till it is fixed never to be forgotten.

DISCOURSE COMMEMORATIVE OF CHARLES ANTHON, LL. D.,

Late Jay-Professor of the Greek Language and Literature in Columbia College.

BY HENRY DRISLER, LL. D.,

Jay-Professor of the Greek Language and Literature in Columbia College.

Few men in any age stand out so prominently that their lives become part of the history of their times, and the record of their services the task of the historian. Yet it has ever been deemed useful and praiseworthy, when one, by faithful and efficient labor has gained distinction, and has identified himself as it were with a great cause, to record his services, to trace the method by which success was achieved, and to hold up his example as an incentive to others.

Among those who are justly entitled to such tribute we should place the zealous and successful teacher, whose faithful instructions send forth, year after year, an increasing band of cultivated pupils, through whom his influence on the thought and character of his age is ever widening. Such indebtedness has been recognized and acknowledged in all ages, when despotism has not crushed out freedom of thought and expression. The beautiful tribute which Cicero in his most polished oration pays to his teacher Archias for the culture of his own age, and the sad lament of the great Roman satirist over the low estimate and recompense of the instructor's office in his day, alike attest the feeling of generous appreciation.

The services rendered by Professor Anthon to the cause of education, and especially to the promotion and elevation of classical learning, and his earnest, life-long devotion to one fixed purpose, deserve commendation, and are entitled to a fuller treatment than the limits of the present discourse allow. It is to be hoped that some one possessing greater leisure and opportunities will collect the now scattered material for a fuller representation of the characteristic traits of a life which occupied, for half a century, so large a space in our academic world, and exercised so wide an influence on the intellectual development of the present generation of our educated men, and which yet in this centre of the

restless activity of modern life was passed in almost monastic seclusion.

The sketch which is here presented is drawn mainly from my own knowledge of his habits of life, opinions, and literary labors, and from the recollections of his conversations in reference to himself for the period preceding my acquaintance with him. May it be found to have erred neither on the side of excessive praise nor of want of appreciation.

Charles Anthon was born in the city of New York, on the 19th of November, 1797. He was of German extraction on the father's side, and of French on the mother's, and the characteristics of the widely different races, which he thus inherited, were happily blended in his physical and intellectual constitution. The massive form and the power of prolonged and unresting application, were his Teutonic birthright, while the ready wit, the brilliant repartee, the ever-sparkling conversation, which so well fitted him to adorn society, which he nevertheless persistently shunned, were derived from his mother. The father, Dr. G. C. Anthon, a native of Salzungen, in Saxe-Meiningen, having entered the service of the British government in the French war, was sent to Canada, and afterward stationed at Detroit in the capacity of surgeon-general. In 1778, he married Genevieve Jadot, the daughter of a French officer, with whom he removed to this city, where he practiced his profession, with considerable distinction, till his death, in 1815. The first connection of a name destined to be so intimately blended with the annals of our college was in 1796, when it appears in the list of the members of the board of trustees, and this relation to the college Dr. Anthon bore during the rest of his life.

It is a remark of Dugald Stewart, that "a propensity to literature and to the learned professions, when it has once become characteristic of a race, is peculiarly apt to be propagated by the influence of early associations and habits." A glance at the index of the triennial catalogues of our own and other colleges will show that this remark holds true even in our newer and more shifting life. To this inherited predisposition to a professional or literary career, there was added on the father's part a German's national appreciation of the value of a collegiate education, and thus in successive years the family name appears again and again on our college roll of honor.

Young Anthon was sent to the best schools the city at that time
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afforded, and pursued with energy and success his classical and mathematical studies. He entered the freshman class of Columbia College in 1811, at the early age of fourteen, from the school of the Rev. Dr. Barry. His preparation had been thorough, and with this advantage his zeal, his industry, and great natural abilities soon placed him in the foremost rank of his class. Though not neglectful of the other departments of the course, yet his classical bent had thus early become apparent, and he devoted himself with peculiar ardor to that study, in which he was destined afterward to occupy so eminent a position. The best evidence of his faithful performance of all college duty is shown by his record, from which it appears that he oustripped all rivals, and by a regulation which then prevailed in the college, was withdrawn from further competition. It was of great service to the young collegian to have had the benefit of the accurate instruction of Dr. Wilson, who at that time filled the chair of Greek and Latin. Mr. Anthon appreciated the doctor's thoroughness, and his great zeal and enthusiasm in the duties of his department; while he respected his slight eccentricities which were but the outgrowth of an earnest nature. The feeling of regard for his instructor was reciprocated, and when a few years later the pupil became professor, he found in his former teacher a warm friend and a wise counsellor. It was from Dr. Wilson's teaching that he learned to regard a sound and thorough grammatical foundation as necessary to a scholarly superstructure.

In the year preceding Mr. Anthon's entrance into college, a complete revision and enlargement of the terms of admission, and of the course of study within the college, had been made under the direction of a committee, consisting in part of such men as Mr. Rufus King, Bishop Hobart, and Dr. Mason. To impart fresh vigor and give new impulse to every department of instruction, and not least to that in which the institution already enjoyed a fair reputation, its classical course, the trustees, induced by the great reputation of Rev. Dr. Mason, had appointed that distinguished divine and scholar to a share of the executive authority, with the title of Provost, and had assigned to him the charge of the classical studies of the senior class, hoping thereby to add to Dr. Wilson's grammatical instruction the polish and elegance of a more finished scholarship. But though Mr. Anthon was thus brought, during his senior year, into personal intercourse with Dr. Mason, and enjoyed the benefit of his varied learning, he appears

not to have formed any warm attachment to his person, and he never spoke of him in after life with the enthusiasm which the doctor's eminent abilities seem elsewhere to have produced. But for the character, personal and official, of Dr. Mason's colleague in the executive office, the gentle Dr. Harris, Professor Anthon had the heartiest admiration. He often spoke of his winning gentleness when expostulating with some idle or erring student, and of his great firmness when gentleness ceased to be a virtue. The very contrast of character seemed only to have strengthened the esteem and attachment of the youthful student and professor, whose notions of discipline were the reverse of those of his superior officer, to whom he nevertheless always gave credit for eminent success as a disciplinarian, and he often referred, in after years, to the presidency of Dr. Harris as the Golden Age of the college.

A marked incident occurred at Mr. Anthon's graduation. His abilities, industry and attainments, clearly indicated him as the head scholar of his class; but at the public announcement of honors on commencement day, it was found that neither of the three highest prizes had been awarded to him. After the distribution of the regular honors, however, this apparent injustice or oversight was explained by an extract from the minutes of the board to the effect—

“That Mr. Charles Anthon, of the senior class, having obtained the golden medal twice in succession, and not having grown negligent in studies, is excluded by the statutes for the second time from competition for a premium.”

The reputation thus acquired as a student had created a favorable impression in the minds of the trustees, and especially of one whose keen foresight and ready skill in judging of character had probably already detected in the zealous scholar the germs of the future professor, and who a few years later was instrumental in securing his appointment in the college in the department to which his most vigorous efforts had been devoted.

In the meantime, as the law seemed to offer the fairest field for the exercise of his abilities, and as his elder brother, who was in this respect, as in that of the further prosecution and extension of his studies, his counsellor and guide, had established an enviable reputation as a lawyer, Mr. Anthon, on leaving college, entered the office of his brother, and devoted himself to legal studies with characteristic ardor. But while performing the duties of his new vocation with fidelity and success, acquiring the principles

of the law under the guidance of a judicious and competent instructor, and a knowledge of its practice by the tedious process of serving papers and interminable copying, he yet found time to keep alive his classical studies, and refreshed at night his mind, wearied with the day's toilsome labor, by the melodious verses of Homer, or the almost equally harmonious periods of Herodotus. Nor did he rest content with these acquisitions. With almost instinctive appreciation of its great future usefulness in opening the treasures of classical criticism and modern philology, he devoted such time as he could spare or save from other demands, to the study of German.

In his school and college course, too, he had managed to devote so much time and attention to French, that he had thoroughly mastered the language, read it with ease, and used it as a convenient instrument in his intellectual labors. Though he was the son of a German father and a French mother, neither of whom spoke English with so much idiomatic accuracy or purity of pronunciation as to have rendered the parent tongue unfamiliar or distasteful, yet in Mr. Anthon's case, as in that of so many children of parents speaking foreign languages, the golden opportunity of learning in childhood, without labor, from the lips of parents was lost, and he had to acquire both German and French in later years, by the slow and toilsome method of dictionary and grammar.

In 1819, Mr. Anthon was admitted to the bar of the Supreme Court of the State of New York. He had, however, scarcely entered upon his profession when an invitation was extended to him which changed entirely the course of his life, and led to his abandonment of the law for the studies which had formed his greatest attraction and delight during his college career.

At the beginning of the year 1820, Dr. Wilson sought to be released from duties which he had performed with great fidelity and success, but which were becoming too burdensome for him. The respect which was felt for this zealous teacher and valuable officer of the college, was testified by the words of the trustees when accepting his resignation, that—

“They lament that the infirmities of age should compel Professor Wilson to retire from a station which he has long filled with distinguished reputation to himself and usefulness to the college.”

In view of the anticipated change thus to be made in the faculty, a report had been prepared and submitted by a committee to the

board of trustees, recommending a division of the subjects in the departments of Greek and Latin, and the erection of two distinct professorships, the one of the Greek language and antiquities, the other of the Latin language and antiquities. This proposition emanated from the then adjunct professor in that department, Mr. N. F. Moore, subsequently president of the college, a name never to be mentioned by any son of Alma Mater but with profound respect for purity of character combined with elegant and varied scholarship. The board of trustees, however, did not adopt the recommendation contained in the report of their committee, but promoted Mr. Moore to the professorship vacated by Dr. Wilson, and at a subsequent meeting elected Mr. Anthon to the place previously filled by Professor Moore.

From this time onward to his last illness, Mr. Anthon's life and energies were devoted to the college, and to the promotion of the studies connected with his department in it. The external incidents of a scholar's life are rarely many; and of the subject of our discourse, this observation holds eminently true. The only changes in his future course were the alterations in the title of his professorship, his connection with the grammar school, and the subsequent division of the subjects of his chair.

Entering at once upon his new duties, Professor Anthon set himself to his work with vigor and earnestness. The course of study in the college at that time, and the arrangement of the hours, greatly aided him in making his work effective. The wonderful enlargement of the bounds of human knowledge and the consequent introduction of new subjects, since made necessary in our institutions of learning, had not been felt as a disturbing element. The time of the freshman class was divided between the professor of languages and the professor of mathematics, with a large preponderance in favor of the classics. With the entire control of his class for three hours a day in his own studies, a teacher rigid and exact in his own attention to duty, and inflexible in requiring the same attention from his pupils, might be expected to produce large results.

From the beginning Professor Anthon sought to give to his instruction a thoroughly grammatical basis; and in order to insure a sufficient preparation on the part of his pupils without adventitious aids, insisted upon what was considered a literal translation of the author's language, and the constant application of etymological and syntactical analysis. But with this minute study of

the language he sought to blend a knowledge of ancient history and geography, of the life and manners, of the civil and military antiquities, of the ancients.

In order to impart the greatest interest to his teaching, and to fit himself most completely for his work, Professor Anthon began at once to collect around him the best editions of the classic authors, and the most complete and accurate treatises on all the collateral branches of study, thus laying the foundation of that valuable library, which by steady accretions became in time perhaps the most complete and choice private classical collection in our country. From every possible quarter he sought to gain fresh information to throw light upon the particular writer his class might be reading.

The most diligent student in his classes never gave so much time and labor to the preparation of his daily task, as did the professor himself. Thoroughly in love with his work, and conscientious in the discharge of his duty, he not only prepared himself for each day's lecture on the subject-matter of his particular author and his peculiarities of style, but from ancient history, from ancient and modern literature, from the biography of distinguished scholars, he selected such facts or anecdotes as would impart valuable information to the minds of his pupils, or would arouse their curiosity and stimulate their zeal. Such teaching gave life and interest to a study which, when confined exclusively to the mere changes of mood and tense, case and number, might be considered dull and unprofitable.

Both in college and during his preparation for the bar, Mr. Anthon had been an earnest student. He felt the necessity of system in order to secure the best results of study, by a careful distribution and frugal use of his time. He adopted at this period the habit which he long maintained, of rising at four o'clock, and devoting the early morning hours to his literary labors; the rest of the day, after his college duties were over, was carefully portioned out, a liberal allowance being made for modern languages and literature. Saturday he usually devoted to the preparation of the college lectures for the following week; not only gathering information on the language and subject-matter of his author, but determining the exact meaning he intended to assign to every word. In this way probably was first suggested to his mind the design of what was clearly much needed, an improvement of the text-books for school and college use. He had himself been

trained under the old system then in vogue, of commencing the grammar and learning through to the end, declensions, conjugations, rules of syntax, and exceptions, all to be committed to memory, and there to be retained without any attempt at the practical application of any portion until the whole was accomplished. The healthful intellectual digestion of youth, aided by the stimulus which was believed to have authority of scripture, and the absence of those other numerous claims upon the time and attention of schoolboys which have been since introduced, made this possible. That such a course did not commend itself to his judgment as a teacher of youth in after years, is evident from the entirely different principle which he adopted in his own Greek and Latin lessons for beginners.

But when the pupils were advanced to construing and translation, the text-books in common use were too often badly printed copies of inaccurate editions, without critical revision and without grammatical references, or the necessary elucidations of the words and thoughts of the author. It must be remembered that if the ancients had any books designed especially for the young, none have come down to our time, and that the authors, whose writings are now used for instruction in the ancient languages, wrote for mature minds; treated of social and religious usages, and drew their illustrations from a life, of which the young student has no experience. Hence every one who has studied the classics, has, no doubt, felt at a certain stage of his progress that the difficulty in his way was not chiefly in construing the passage before him, but, after he had ascertained the meaning and had satisfied himself as to the agreement and government of the words, in unravelling the thought, or, as it has been expressed, in reading what was between the lines; and has, therefore, needed an intelligent tutor or a skillfully composed and judicious commentary. Professor Anthon's experience as an examiner of applicants for admission to college, and as teacher, pointed out to him the difficulty under which the youthful student labored, and he began, almost immediately after his appointment to his professorship, to provide a remedy by at first improving the school books he found in use, toward which his mastery of the German language and his acquaintance with the literary labors of the German scholars furnished him valuable assistance.

The same sense of new requirements and the desire to provide the necessary aids for meeting them, seem to have sprung up at

the same time in various quarters of our country. In our own college, and in the older institutions of New England, members of the same literary brotherhood, though perhaps unknown to each other, and actuated solely by that inborn spirit which impels men to add to the stock of human knowledge, or to aid in smoothing the way for others, had been for some time laboring in different branches of the same great cause. Mr. Pickering, amid the demands of a laborious profession, had not long before prepared for publication his Greek-English Lexicon, the first effort of the kind among us. Professor Kingsley, in New Haven, had been working also amid great difficulties, and without those aids which free access to the labors of German philologists has since afforded, to lay the foundation of the future scholarship of Yale. Dr. Popkin, professor of Greek at Harvard, by his instructions in the class-room, and by occasional publications, particularly of a revised edition of Dalzel's *Græca Majora*, greatly promoted the cause of liberal culture. Yet up to this period the narrower scholarship of England and Scotland had mainly furnished the model, and supplied the aids to classical learning.

But broader views of antiquity had been introduced in Germany, by the labors of Heyne, Winckelmann, Wolf, Boeckh, and others, while the new science of comparative philology was assuming definite form and proportion under the guidance of Humboldt and Bopp. The dissemination of these new and wider views of the classic tongue was to be the work of the younger generation of scholars, whose residence abroad or study of the German language at home gave them knowledge of and access to the sources of information. Mr. Everett had just returned from a residence of several years in Europe, to enter upon the duties of the Eliot professorship of Greek in Harvard, while Mr. Bancroft had been appointed tutor in the same institution. Both these young men, fully imbued with the classic spirit which they had imbibed in their studies abroad, sought to introduce and extend at home, by their teaching and writings, the improved methods which they had found in use there.

A new era in Greek grammar began among us with the translation, by Mr. Everett, of Buttmann's smaller grammar, and the publication of Thiersch's Greek tables by Professor Patton, of Middlebury College. Mr. Bancroft gave evidence of the direction of his taste, while opening the way for an enlarged study of antiquity, by the translation of Heeren's *Politics of Ancient*

Greece, though he at the same time contributed his quota toward facilitating the study of language by his selections from Jacobs' Latin Reader. Professor Stuart, too, at Andover, deeply versed in the sacred and classic philology of the German scholars, though devoting himself almost exclusively to biblical subjects, yet, by the magnetism of his personal influence, and by his earnest appeals for greater attention to the original language of scripture, aided greatly the cause of classical studies, while his associate, Professor Robinson, first introduced to his countrymen the illustrious Heyne, by printing a portion of Homer with a selection from the notes of that distinguished scholar.

But it is not the object of this address to attempt a history of the progress of classical literature in this country: apart from their position at the turning-point of our philological studies, and the influence they exercised in promoting them, the names of Mr. Everett and Mr. Bancroft are here introduced on account of their connection with a discussion in which Professor Anthon also took a conspicuous part, and which served in a measure as the opening of his literary career. Singularly enough, this comparatively unimportant question brought together names which stand high on the roll of fame, and have become distinguished in widely different spheres. The central figure was one with whom, in after days, Professor Anthon was destined to be thrown into more intimate relations, and whose decease was separated from his own by but a short interval, Dr. Charles King, our late venerated President, whose memory will be cherished with respect and affection by those whose lot it was to be brought into familiar association with him.

At this period the enthusiasm which prevailed throughout the country in behalf of the struggling Greeks had infected all classes of citizens, and carried away all hearts. The ladies of New York and Brooklyn had thrown themselves into the cause with all the ardor which characterizes woman's nature in behalf of suffering and struggling heroism. In the intensity of their fervor they had resolved to construct a magnificent Grecian cross, to be planted on the Brooklyn Heights facing the city, and surmounted with the Grecian wreath of victory. For a knowledge of the materials of which this wreath had been composed in the early days of Grecian liberty, they appealed to the scholars of the country. Mr. King's paper, *The New York American*, received the contributions; and first in the list of those who sought to win the favor

of the Grecian ladies, appeared our now venerable ex-President, who seems but to have opened the contest, and then to have retired in favor of his youthful adjunct; in rivalry with these appear the names of Dr. Hosack, Anthony Bleecker, Dr. King, Mr. Bancroft, who had now established his famous seminary at Round Hill, and, finally, though not a competitor, Dewitt Clinton, while the decision of the question was committed to Professor Everett, of Harvard College. Mr. Everett, in making his decision, reviews the whole controversy, giving a summary of the arguments, remarking in the course of it:

“If it be required on the present occasion to make a choice, where so much ingenuity and ability have been displayed from many quarters, it must be in favor of the writer who, under the signature of ‘A,’* has particularly urged this opinion and adduced most of the authorities quoted above in its favor.”

I have dwelt thus at considerable length on this subject, because it shows clearly the habits of application, the knowledge of authorities, and the accurate scholarship of Professor Anthon at this early stage of his literary career. The same habit of research, the same thoroughness of investigation and discussion of authorities, he carried into his earliest publications. Among the first of these, besides certain school books, was an American edition of Lempriere’s Classical Dictionary. Though his reputation for scholarship seemed, in the publisher’s estimation, to entitle him to the position of editor of the work, yet so high was the authority of Lempriere, and so fearful was the publisher of any alteration of the text, that the editor could do little more in this first issue, besides his additions, than become acquainted with the errors and improprieties of the book which he was destined subsequently first to remodel and then entirely supersede. In the preface to his own Classical Dictionary, Dr. Anthon thus speaks of the reluctance with which he was allowed to improve the work:

“So strong a hold had it taken of public favor, both at home and in our own country, that when the editor hinted the propriety of making some alterations in the text, he was met with the reply, ‘that one might as well think of making alterations in the Scriptures as in the pages of Dr. Lempriere.’”

Still, when the scholarly and painstaking labors of the editor, as evidenced in the numerous additions he had made, were favorably received by the public, larger license was granted, and in

* Professor Anthon. The contributions were published in a small volume entitled “The Grecian Wreath of Victory,” New York, 1824.

the next edition changes, additions and omissions were freely made, the omissions being no less necessary than the additions.

This work was speedily reprinted in England, and added largely to the editor's reputation. Accuracy of statement, but no less purity of sentiment, required many of the omissions. Lempriere's work was stained with many of the indelicate details of ancient mythology, and it indicates the high moral sense of the editor that he took at this time the stand which he adhered to in his subsequent school publications, that no mere knowledge of antiquity or regard for the entirety of an author's text should be a sufficient plea for habituating the minds of the young to what is morally corrupting.

In the dedication of the enlarged edition to his brother, he thus writes of Dr. Lempriere's work, and of his own method:

"Having had my attention thus drawn to a closer examination of the volume, I soon became convinced that it was a strange medley of correct information and careless conjecture, and what was far worse, that the precept of the Roman satirist, of which no instructor should for a moment lose sight, was violated on almost every page. Often, in the place of stating important particulars respecting an individual or a nation, some disgusting trait of moral deformity was alone mentioned, and it was thought fit information for the youthful student to call his attention to what could have no other tendency than to initiate him into the mysteries of heathen impurity. I trust that I shall not be thought to have used too unsparing a hand in removing what was thus offensive. Worse than idle are all the efforts of the scholar, if moral purity be a stranger to his breast; and vainly will he toil in the rich mine of antiquity, if every step exposes him to some fatal damp, which may prostrate forever both his principles and his happiness."

Immediately on the completion of this second edition, Professor Anthon set about another work of a character never before attempted here, a critical and exegetical edition of a classical author with learned prolegomena, apparatus of critical notes, and an ample commentary. Horace was selected for this purpose, and the zealous labor of the following years was devoted to the collection of material and its proper distribution. The edition of Doering furnished the basis of the commentary, while the brilliant but often arbitrary emendations of Bentley, of whose immense learning, great versatility of talent, and self-reliant positive character, the professor was an ardent admirer, supplied matter for much of the critical apparatus. But, as the editor remarks in his Latin preface, "huc undique gazam contuli," he literally heaped up treasures of criticism and illustration gathered from every possible quarter. The design was a bold one, and the labor

expended upon the work not without result, though the condition of classical learning at that time did not seem to call for so elaborate a publication, and the reception of the edition did not warrant the application of the same system to other authors.

As the "larger Horace," having never been reprinted, has now become scarce, and as many of the more recent alumni have never seen this first attempt to naturalize among us the more elaborate style of editing adopted by the great English and Continental scholars, it may not be amiss to give a brief description of a work far in advance of its day, and which yet may be consulted with advantage. First is given a life of Horace, with an account of his Sabine farm, and a chronological arrangement of his poems; then follow a comparison of every passage in which Horace seems to have imitated the Greek poets, with the original Greek; a treatise on the metres of Horace; an account of the principal manuscripts and editions arranged by centuries, and of translations into the Italian, French, English, German, Dutch and Polish languages. The text is then printed with a copious selection of various readings elaborately criticised, followed by a body of commentary exegetical, geographical, mythological and archaeological, extending over six hundred pages, closed by an index of proper names, the whole making a large octavo volume of over one thousand pages. It was completed and published in 1830, and the indefatigable editor immediately began the preparation for a thoroughly revised and enlarged edition of Lempriere, in which he was at length allowed to carry out his own views, and to make such changes and additions as might seem to him desirable to render the work an exponent of the progress in classical literature.

It was about this period that Professor Anthon's name was frequently introduced into the discussions relative to the origin of Mormonism.* Some of the propagators of this wretched deception had referred to him as having pronounced the inscription which had been copied from the pretended golden plates of the Mormon Bible, to be "reformed Egyptian hieroglyphics." Being annoyed by questions and letters on this subject, from which he was led to believe that improper use was made of his supposed sanction of their assumed character, he wrote a letter for publication explaining the circumstances and extent of his connection

* The substance of the following statement, and Professor Anthon's letter, are found in Ferris's "Utah and the Mormons." New York, 1856, p. 62.

with the golden book. From this it appears that a farmer in Western New York, of considerable means, had been urged by Joseph Smith to advance money for the publication of this "golden book," being assured that the contents of it would produce an entire change in the world, and save it from ruin. On the strength of these assurances he was about to sell his farm, and give over the proceeds for the purpose intended. He had taken the precaution before so doing to come to New York with a specimen of the contents of the book, the original of which he had never seen, to consult some learned man, and was accordingly directed to Professor Anthon as most likely to furnish the information he was in quest of. The professor who had from the first regarded the Egyptian hieroglyphics as a hoax, now came to the conclusion that they were a part of a scheme to defraud the farmer of his money, and so informed him. But the friendly advice which the professor had given seems not to have had any effect, as the same person returned some time after with the "golden book" in print, and offered copies for sale. On the professor's stating his belief that he had been imposed on, and urging him to have the gold plates examined before a magistrate, he said the "curse of God" would come upon him if he did; but that he would open the trunk containing the plates if the questioner would take the curse upon himself. This the professor offered to do with the greatest willingness, hoping thereby to dispel the illusion under which the man was suffering, and to save him from threatening ruin. The visitor then left and returned no more.

In a letter dated February 17, 1834, from which part of the foregoing statement also is obtained, Professor Anthon thus describes the paper which was submitted to his inspection:

"It consisted of all kinds of singular characters, disposed in columns, and had evidently been prepared by some person who had before him at the time a book containing various alphabets, Greek and Hebrew letters, crosses and flourishes; Roman letters inverted, or placed sideways were arranged and placed in perpendicular columns, and the whole ended in crude delineations of a circle divided into various compartments, arched with various strange marks, and evidently copied after the Mexican calendar given by Humboldt, but copied in such a way as not to betray the source whence it was derived. I am thus particular as to the contents of the paper, inasmuch as I have frequently conversed with my friends on the subject since the Mormon excitement began, and well remember that the paper contained anything else than 'Egyptian hieroglyphics.'"

In the year 1830, also, the trustees of the college desiring to give greater efficiency to their grammar school, placed it under the charge of Professor Anthon, believing that the vigor and efficiency which he had exhibited in the management of the freshman class, would, if applied to the school, infuse new life into that institution. The establishment of a competent preparatory school had long been a favorite idea with the board of trustees.

Already in 1763 a plan was adopted for the founding of a grammar school, "which was opened not long afterwards under the charge of Mr. Matthew Cushing, of Charlestown, Massachusetts."^{*}

This first scheme seems not to have been pecuniarily successful, for on an examination into its affairs in 1767, the college was found to have been a loser by it to a considerable amount, and certain modifications in the management of it were therefore introduced.[†]

It probably continued its existence until the suspension of all college exercises, and the occupation of the buildings by troops in 1776.

On the re-opening of the college in 1784, one of the first acts of "the Regents of the University was to institute a grammar school in the college, and to appoint Mr. William Cochran as master thereof."[‡]

How long the school thus restored continued to exist, I have not the means of stating, but in 1827 the trustees again appointed a committee to take measures for the establishment of a suitable preparatory school which should be under their general control and supervision, and it was over this that Professor Anthon was now placed temporarily in charge. In 1833 the Trustees completed the arrangement, which put the school thenceforward practically under his entire control, while it released them from any pecuniary risk. Professor Anthon's efficient supervision and personal participation in the instruction infused such new life, that the number of pupils speedily ran up from less than fifty to three hundred, and the school acquired a reputation second to none among the schools of the city for thoroughness of scholarship and efficiency of discipline. In the same year the trustees conferred on Professor Anthon as a mark of their appreciation of his valuable services, the title of Jay-Professor of the Greek and Latin languages—a title established in honor of one of Columbia's most

^{*} From President Moore's "Historical Sketch of Columbia College," p. 46.

[†] *Id.*, p. 52.

[‡] *Id.*, p. 66.

distinguished sons, John Jay, first Chief Justice of the United States—and in the next year the degree of LL. D., an unusual honor for one so young, for they have ever exercised a wise frugality in conferring this their highest academic distinction, and have reserved it for those whose professional and literary merits have had time to mature, and have been certified by the lapse of years.

On the resignation of Dr. Moore in 1835, Dr. Anthon was appointed his successor, still retaining the title of Jay-Professor, but being released from the instruction of the freshman class, which had been hitherto his sole college duty, and of which he had had almost exclusive charge. On the election, however, of his former colleague in 1842, Dr. Anthon resigned to him the instruction of the senior class, and resumed in part his former duty with the freshman, but only until the following year. No further change was made in the professor's official relation to the college until the year 1857, when certain modifications and additions were introduced in the then existing departments of study, and the staff of professors was greatly increased. The chair of the Greek and Latin languages was divided nearly according to the arrangement proposed in 1820, into a professorship of the Greek language and literature, and a professorship of the Latin language and literature, and Dr. Anthon, to whom the choice was allowed, elected the former department. Henceforward till death removed him from the scene of his labors, this was his sphere of duty, and his official designation was, as he is known to the more recent generation of graduates, Jay-Professor of the Greek language and literature.

Immediately after the publication of his *Horace* in 1830, Dr. Anthon began, as has been mentioned, the preparation of a new and greatly enlarged edition of his Lempriere's Classical Dictionary, which, notwithstanding the greatly increased duties imposed upon him by the added charge of the grammar school, he carried on uninterruptedly till the completion of the work in 1833. In this edition, as the editor states in his preface—

"Almost every article has been either rewritten or enlarged; * * * the geographical portion will be found essentially improved, more particularly those articles which have reference to Italy and Greece. In literary biography very important alterations have been introduced, especially in the case of dramatic writers. Various interesting theories are also stated in the course of the work, from which the student will be able to ascertain the sentiments of some of the first scholars of the day on numerous points of classical antiquity."

The improvement shown in the previous edition over the original work of Lempriere, had, on its reproduction in England, led to a correspondence with several eminent scholars, from whom he received hints and suggestions towards its further improvement; and among these he especially prized the contributions of Dr. Francis Adams (a learned physician of Aberdeen, Scotland, editor and translator of the works of Aretaeus and Hippocrates), to the biography of several of the eminent physicians of antiquity.

To complete the history of this work, though out of the order of time, we have but to mention the last revision occupying portions of the interval from this period to the date of its completion in 1842. So extensive had been the changes, and so numerous and valuable the additions, that the professor felt justified in rejecting the name of Lempriere, and issuing the work as Anthon's Classical Dictionary. As this work contains more of the results of his great industry and varied learning, and occupied a greater portion of his literary activity than any other of his productions, it may be proper to present his own view of the relation of his work to that of his predecessor, and his own statement of his processes and accomplishment:

"A new work is the result, not an improved edition of the old one; * * * whatever was worth preserving among the additions previously made by the editor he has retained, but in general even these are so altered and improved as in many instances to be difficult of recognition; while, on the other hand, all the old articles of Lempriere, excepting a few, have been superseded by new ones."

In this, as in the earlier issues, the principal subject on which labor was expended was ancient geography:

"The subject of mythology supplied, next to that of ancient geography, the largest number of articles; and in the treatment of these it was the chief aim of the author to lay before the student the most important speculations of the two great schools (the mystic and anti-mystic) of mythology, represented respectively by Creuzer and Lobeck. The historical department has also been a subject of careful attention. Here, again, the origin of nations forms a very attractive field of inquiry, and the student is put in possession of the ablest and most recent speculations of both German and English scholarship. * * * Particular attention has also been paid to the department of biography: this subject will be found divided into different heads; of public men, of individuals eminent in literature, of scientific characters, of physicians, of philosophers, and also of persons distinguished in the early history of the church."

Not the least valuable feature in the earlier edition, reproduced in the last, though it might be considered by some ostentatious,

was the copious list of books, forming part of his private collection, which the editor prefixed to the work. To the young student, and to the general reader at a distance from the public libraries, without access to books of bibliography, or to the few scholars who had at that time made acquaintance with German classical productions, the full and explicit titles of the very best books in so many branches of classical literature was a great boon.

At a grand gathering of professed philologists, orientalists, and teachers, of Germany and Switzerland, held at Basle, in 1847, the vice-president, Dr. Fisher, read a communication from the learned Creuzer, of Heidelberg, on philological and historical dictionaries, a considerable portion of which is occupied with an account of the improvements in this department of classical literature by the New York professor. To the son of Alma Mater, who, after finishing his undergraduate course, had wandered across the ocean to pursue his classical studies in the land of learning, it was a source of gratification and pride in listening to the lectures of the venerable Boeckh, the distinguished rector of the University of Berlin, and the highest name even among German scholars, on all points of Grecian political antiquities, to recognize among the authorities to which his hearers were referred, the old familiar title of Anthon's Classical Dictionary.

With the addition of the rectorship of the grammar school in 1833, the professor's labors had been, as before stated, materially increased. His official duties now regularly required six hours of the solid day. But though thus busily employed, his active mind, immediately after the completion of his last edition of Lempriere, set about the further improvement of the elementary books used in preparation for college, which he had begun on entering upon his duties as professor. He had already edited or adapted for school use, a Greek grammar, book of exercises, and the works of Sallust. No doubt his connection with the grammar school, and the experience there practically acquired, pointed out to him still more fully the great defects in the existing editions of the school authors.

But meantime greater and more ambitious designs and performances had intervened. And now before him lay two courses, one to which a regard for scholastic reputation and the earnest solicitation of his early adviser and friend urged him, the production of carefully and patiently elaborated independent works, the other the humbler office of smoothing the path of the young student.

by preparing a series of copiously annotated school and college text-books. Abandoning the thought of the more ambitious career, he set himself to the humbler task, and in pursuance of this decision he entered into an agreement with the eminent publishers, Messrs. Harper & Brothers, to prepare such a series of Greek and Latin classics and of elementary books and manuals, to be adapted to the needs of the pupil from his first entrance upon the study of the languages to the completion of his college course. Having formed his decision, he, with his usual promptitude and energy, set himself to his work, and from this date, for a period of thirty years, he produced, on an average, more than a volume a year, including in the number his own Classical Dictionary. So well established had his reputation as a commentator become, that the first issue of the series, the sixth edition really of his *Sallust*, was immediately reprinted in England. As the successive volumes of the school classics appeared here, they were regularly reproduced abroad. So popular did they become that rival editions of several of them were issued from the presses of London, Glasgow, and Dublin. The Dublin editor of the *Odes of Horace*, with much greater deference to the reputation of his predecessor than regard for the interests of his reader, remarks, in explanation of his method of proceeding:

“Wherever I considered his (Dr. Anthon’s) views to be very incorrect, I have given his note in full, and immediately succeeding is placed the objection to it, and what appeared to be a preferable mode of explanation.”

In the introduction to the new edition of *Sallust*, as in several others of the series, the editor, abandoning the formal narrative of the life and writings of the author, adopted the form of an imaginary conversation, which served to convey in a more familiar and attractive manner a great variety of literary anecdote. Here, as in his college lectures, the professor’s varied reading is appropriately introduced, and many a school-boy has formed in these pleasing compositions his first acquaintance with some interesting book which he has afterward learned to prize.

But, with all his editorial labor, Dr. Anthon found time to contribute to the magazines and reviews of the day. He wrote occasionally for the *Knickerbocker*, for the *New York Review*, and, subsequently, for *Harper’s Magazine*, to which he contributed the brief article on Porson.

It was hardly to be expected that one, whose character was so

positive, and whose views as editor and commentator were so opposed to those of many of his compeers, should escape the censure of critics. His principles of interpretation, and his theory of the duties of an editor, as well as the character of his scholarship, were called in question, sometimes calmly and thoughtfully, sometimes with harshness, and apparently with personal hostility. To these criticisms he occasionally replied, but more frequently he allowed them to pass in silence, regarding them as chiefly the expression of sectional prejudice.

But this is a topic which it is not designed to pursue further here; some of the participants in these discussions are still living, and it is neither wise nor pleasant to stir afresh the smouldering embers of personal controversies. Time is a healing divinity, and as under its influence rivalries and angry feelings become toned down, Dr. Anthon's services in the cause of classical learning will be more readily and more generally admitted. It will hardly be considered as detracting from the reputation of any of his contemporaries to assert that his name and fame as a purely classical scholar were more widely extended and more generally appreciated abroad than those of any other American; and this, too, simply from the inherent value of his literary labors, as he never visited Europe, and never sought the republication of his works. But his commentaries were generally reprinted, and were widely used, as before mentioned, in England, Scotland and Ireland. His Classical Dictionary was praised and referred to as a valuable repository by some of Germany's most learned professors, and called forth eulogiums in literary gatherings and from the press. The learned Dr. Wagner, of Dresden, the best known editor of Virgil after the illustrious Heyne, wrote a "libellus lectionum Vergilianarum" which he addressed "ad virum præstantissimum Carolum Anthon, professorem Neo-Eboracensem," and which is filled with complimentary expressions, best conveyed in what was the common language of scholars.

Professor Anthon felt an honest pride in such unsought testimonials to his services in the cause of liberal studies, and he was always gratified when learned foreigners visited the college, and requested permission to be present at his lectures. And there were many such, scholars from many different lands, either sent by their government to report upon the condition of our schools and colleges, or seeking their own gratification and instruction, some of whom afterwards gave their impressions to the public.

With a feeling of satisfaction he received the commendation of his skill and success, and he preserved and quoted the published testimony of such approval as evidence that within the limited sphere of their operations the work of American colleges was not inferior to that of similar institutions abroad.

In 1849, Professor Siljeström, from Stockholm, visited the educational institutions of the United States, among others Columbia College, and published the result of his observations on his return. He remarks of Alma Mater:

“Indeed not even in Germany would it be possible to proceed on a more minute and critical system of interpretation as regards the classical authors, than I heard applied in Columbia College when I was there.”

Professor Anthon’s work is not to be judged by a comparison with the results which have been attained since he began his reforms in the classical text-books of his day. Any one who will take up an edition of Caesar or Sallust or Cicero or Horace or Virgil in use in our schools prior to 1830, and will compare the meagre and uninteresting notulæ appended to them with the corresponding editions by Dr. Anthon, filled with a rich store of information of all kinds, cannot but admit that his editorial labors have constituted an era in that department of learning. Opinions have differed and will differ in regard to the value of the fullness of translation, which he considered it expedient to introduce into his commentaries, and often as to the accuracy of his interpretation, but there can be scarce a doubt of the great benefit he conferred upon teachers and pupils and the great improvement he made upon his predecessors in presenting in accessible shape the rich stores of the learned German commentators, which then were comparatively unknown and difficult to procure. Now by weekly communication with Europe by steamer, by more usual residence abroad of those who intend to devote themselves to professional life, by the opportunity through agencies among us of seeing or readily procuring all new philological publications, by a more general attention to higher sources of information and careful original study on the part of younger men, who have the advantage of beginning where their predecessors ended, the characteristic merit of Dr. Anthon’s commentaries is becoming daily lessened, and they must share the fate of all pioneer works in a progressive study; yet in the history of the progress of classical literature in our country, his name will ever occupy a prominent place.

But as a professor and schoolmaster also, Dr. Anthon is entitled to high consideration. Contrary to general usage, he was a professor before he was a schoolmaster, and the vigor and success with which he discharged his duties in the former capacity, led to his appointment to the latter position. This fact had no doubt considerable influence on the system of instruction and discipline established in the grammar school under his charge. He had never gone through the regular gradations of a school teacher's course; he had never had personal care of the younger classes; besides, he had no children of his own; hence in his dealings with the youngest boys he did not make the necessary allowances for the timidity, the backwardness, the slow apprehension of the beginner, with whom gentleness and patience will always accomplish more than harshness and stern exaction or severity of punishment. The marked element in Dr. Anthon's character, the strict and punctual performance of duty, impressed itself upon his relations with his pupils; he expected and required from every student the preparation of every lesson assigned him by his teacher, or, in default thereof, inflicted some punishment. The theory of "sparing the rod and spoiling the child" was then generally prevalent; parents approved the theory and teachers put it in practice. Besides, Dr. Anthon felt a great admiration for the study, character and rigid enforcement of discipline of the great English masters of the old regime, particularly of Dr. Busby, who was said to have educated more youths who were afterwards eminent in church and state, than any other master of his time, and under whom the penalty for the non-performance of duty was the rod. There were other points in old Dr. Busby besides his appeal to the rod, which Dr. Anthon admired and carried out in his own microcosm of the schoolroom. His sturdy independence of character, his exaltation of the office of schoolmaster, and his rule of acknowledging no superior in the presence of his pupils, were also characteristic of the grammar school rector, and gave to his bearing an air of haughtiness.

Every day he visited the different rooms of the school, and every Friday he held a general review of the week's work, which was in fact a test as well of the competency of the teachers as of the progress of the pupils. Woe to the luckless boy who was at the foot of his class at the end of such review; woe to the luckless youth whose copybook exhibited blots or fancy sketches or a careless scrawl. If a boy had a defective memory and could

not remember the dates of history or the site of a town; if he was unskilled in the use of dictionary and grammar, and could not solve the intricacy of a Greek or Latin sentence; if he failed to work out a problem in algebra or arithmetic, or did not hear the bell when intermission was over and enter the room in proper time, the never-failing rod was applied to arouse the dormant faculty or quicken slumbering memory.

But though Dr. Anthon was thus prompt to punish delinquencies, he on the other hand showed an ever ready and hearty appreciation of merit. He used every art and device to stimulate industry; for the deserving students the Friday's review brought commendation and an earlier dismissal from school on that day; a bright answer from some unknown lad would lead him at once to question the teacher as to the antecedents of the new candidate for favor, and if the boy's ability corresponded to this first performance in the rector's presence, his subsequent career was an object of interest. Sometimes the result of the weekly or monthly examination would be, that a pupil who had particularly distinguished himself was transferred at once to the next class, a year in advance.

The grammar school under Dr. Anthon's management was a severe, but useful training place, and sent out not only well-disciplined pupils, but also many excellent teachers. Dr. Anthon was a good judge of men as of books, though he sometimes drove from him by his strictness those whose merits and services he appreciated. With the change of public opinion in regard to corporeal punishment, he gradually modified the severity of discipline in the school, and before his resignation of the rectorship in 1864, the rod had become almost entirely disused. The same gradual amelioration took place also in his government of the college classes, which was indicated by the change in the familiar appellation by which he was known to the students.

His system of instruction, too, underwent considerable modification. In his earlier years he had been strict in requiring a literal translation of the author's language, but after taking charge of the upper classes he adopted a system to which he adhered throughout his subsequent teaching, of preparing a carefully elaborated version of everything read by his class, in which he sought to develop the signification of mood and tense, and the force of particles and compounds, which he required to be written down by the student from his dictation, and committed to memory

for review and for examination, allowing no other translation to be given. He sought in this way to fix permanently in the memory of his pupils a certain portion of their reading, and to protect them from the effect of perturbation at examination by the thoroughness of their knowledge, and to give them a model after which to shape their own subsequent reading. With this translation he combined the analysis of words and sentences, dwelling more upon etymological forms than syntactical rules, but illustrating the whole from his ample stores of philological learning, and rich fund of anecdote. The attention of his pupils was kept alive also by a constant stream of questions directed everywhere about the class, but especially to any one observed to be listless or wandering from the work before him. The unexpectedness of the question, with the strong likelihood of being called up next to recite, or some sarcastic remark on the value of habits of attention, or on the appropriateness of the furniture, or a reproof from the lips of some of the worthies of old, whose portraits looked down from the walls of the room upon the offender, dispelled the listlessness and recalled the wandering attention.

Dr. Anthon was always ready to answer questions on the subject under discussion, and allowed a somewhat wide range to the extent of such subject; in fact, he made it a principle of his system of instruction to give an answer of some kind to every question that was put to him. In his lecture-room good order prevailed. His striking personal appearance, his prompt and decisive manner, his authoritative tone, his ready wit, and sometimes biting sarcasm, and his thorough mastery of his subject, gave him entire and ready control of his classes. In fact, with his pupils Dr. Anthon bore something of the character which Xenophon ascribes to Clearchus among his soldiers—that of one fitted to inspire those around him with the feeling that he was a man to be obeyed.

For many years Dr. Anthon was never absent from his classroom; he was never tardy, nor ever known to have met his class flurried and excited by the effort to make up accidental delay; he allowed no personal engagements, no private business to detain him from his college duties;—the class invariably found him at his post, his book open before him, pencil in hand, cool and collected.

In regularity of attendance, in devotion to his work, in the faithfulness and thoroughness of his own preparation, and in the zealous earnestness with which he sought to imbue the minds of his pupils with a love of classic literature, Dr. Anthon stood

preëminent. So, too, as an officer of the college, he was regular and punctual in his attendance at the meetings of the board, where his experience in the management of youth, and his promptitude and decision, gave him great influence.

In the private relations of life, Dr. Anthon possessed many noble traits of character which were hidden from view by his recluse habits. He was an affectionate son and brother. His attachment to his mother in life was tender, and her memory was cherished by him with a most affectionate regard. So soon after his appointment in the college as he was able to establish a home of his own, he took his mother and sisters to it, and thenceforward, till one by one death separated them, they knew no other. In this home, in great seclusion from the busy world around, his hours were divided between his favorite studies, and the pleasures of domestic intercourse. Though eminently fitted for social enjoyment, brilliant in conversation, of a cheerful temperament, fond of the pleasures of the table, he yet, from an unconquerable aversion to public observation, and from devotion to the work to which he had set himself, shunned almost all intercourse with his fellow men.

His walks for exercise were usually taken after dusk, or confined to the limits of the college green; he never attended lectures or places of public amusement; never was seen at evening parties; was a member of no political or religious association; rarely visited the libraries or bookstores; yet he kept himself acquainted with what was passing in the world around him, knew all the new books that were issued from the press, and continually added to the stores of his own collection, making his purchases from catalogues, or using the eyes of others to make the necessary examinations. His taste became very nice in the appearance as well as in the character of his books; he was not a black-letter scholar, and did not spend much for the purchase of simple rarities; but he loved his books even as books, and sought after fine paper editions, which he took delight in clothing in elegant bindings. It might have been a gratification to those who had been taught to love books for themselves as well as for their contents from his example, had his collection been dispersed by public sale, so that they might have secured some memento of their preceptor; but it will doubtless afford greater satisfaction to learn that, even though Alma Mater has not secured the treasure, the entire collection remains intact, and has gone to infuse a classic spirit into the young and

promising university recently founded in a neighboring town of our own State, by the munificent liberality of one of its citizens.

In the preparation of his manuscript for the press Dr. Anthon was very particular. He for years used only the finest satin paper, gilt-edged and tinted; he did this not out of mere fastidiousness, but from the facility it afforded from its solid texture for erasing, as he never obliterated with his pen or finger. If he failed to accomplish his purpose after one or two erasures, he tore the page and rewrote the whole. Like Porson's, his manuscript attracted attention for its neatness; he wrote without lines very evenly, and the characters resembled print more than writing. From its marked peculiarity, requests were often made to his publishers for specimens of it.

Professor Anthon, though connecting himself with no associations, was liberal, and gave freely to charitable objects, especially to the poor and helpless of his own profession; and of these after the revolution in Europe of 1848 there was no lack. In the ordinary course of political affairs he took no interest, but when rebel hands sought to rend asunder our glorious Union, his sympathies were with his country; he shared in the deep sorrow and mortification at our earlier reverses, and rejoiced in the ultimate triumph of liberty and justice.

For years together he never left his native city. Vacation to him was acceptable, not for the rest and opportunity to travel it afforded, but as allowing him to devote himself more exclusively to his literary labors. Once only, in the summer of 1831, he made a pious pilgrimage to Detroit, the place of his mother's birth, and thence extended his journey to Montreal and Quebec, returning home by the way of the White Mountains. Though delighting in books of travel, of which he had a valuable collection, and at times allowing fancy to paint the vision of a tour through the beautiful regions of Asia Minor, he finally contented himself with his annual migration from his winter residence in his library on the first floor, to his summer retreat in the third story of his house on the old college green.

With years his local attachments only became stronger; he could ill endure to be absent from his college lecture-room, even on days when he had no recitation. The strict performance of duty had been his rule of life, and true to his maxim, when the first attack of the disease which terminated his existence fell upon him at his post in the presence of his class, he refused to be

relieved, and it was only by shortening the hour that he could be induced to leave his work and seek the rest he so much needed. Though he speedily recovered from this first attack, yet it was deemed prudent that he should not return immediately to his duty, and the trustees at their next ensuing meeting voted him leave of absence for the rest of the year. It was believed that a sea voyage might benefit him, but the very thought was repugnant to him; the only answer he made when urged to adopt such a course was, "I shall feel better at my usual employment in my lecture-room than anywhere else." He had no hopes, no desires, no ambitions in life beyond or apart from his college work.

He returned to his duties at the opening of the new session in February, not caring to avail himself of the leave of absence, and continued at his post till near the end of April, when he was stricken down by a second attack, to return no more to the college he had loved so well and served so faithfully. In the months of May and June he sometimes rallied, and his disease so far gave way that he had hopes of being able in the fall to resume his wonted task; but with the arrival of the summer heat his strength failed and he began to sink rapidly. His mind was at times unsettled, and in the period of his mental aberrations he was again occupied with his favorite pursuits in the midst of his college classes, while his words, as caught by those around him, dwelt on the necessity of performing his duty whatever might be the consequences.

Propped up in bed by the volumes which had been his chosen companions through life, he grew day by day more feeble, till finally on the 29th of July he passed quietly away. On the 1st of August, in the calm of a bright summer's day, in yonder church-yard, beneath the shadow of St. Mark's, his remains were committed to their kindred dust; while around the open grave were gathered a numerous body of pupils—the gray-haired alumnus of nearly half a century, and the youthful under-graduate—who had come, when the sad tidings reached them, from their widely scattered retreats, to unite with sorrowing friends and relatives in paying this last tribute of respect to their departed instructor.

WRITTEN EXAMINATIONS IN HIGHER ENGLISH AND THE CLASSICS.

BY ALONZO FLACK, A. M.

Principal of Claverack Academy and Hudson River Institute.

At the meeting of the Convocation, August 9th, 1866, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That we recommend to the Regents of the University, to prepare papers for written examinations in the higher English branches and the classics, for such academies as desire to come into such examinations

We have from time to time reminded the honorable Secretary of the Board of Regents, of the binding force of this resolution, which he has freely admitted, and promised to carry out its provisions; but other and more pressing duties, we charitably presume, have prevented; and a few days since we were asked by the honorable Secretary, to present a paper on this subject, the advantages of which seem to us so self-evident, that we feel at a loss how to present them.

The Regents should, we think, send printed questions to all the academies, on at least five subjects of higher English and the classics, at each term. Of the papers containing written answers, the whole, one-half, or any less number, should be sent to the department for examination. For example:

Fall Term.—Papers might be sent containing questions on Natural Philosophy, first half; Mental Philosophy; Algebra, through simple equations; first and second books of Geometry; Cæsar.

Winter Term.—Chemistry or Astronomy; Rhetoric; Algebra; Anabasis; French.

Summer Term.—Botany; Kames' Elements of Criticism; Spherical Geometry; Homer; Virgil's *Æneid*.

These subjects could be varied—some dropped, others added.

The advantages of such examinations would be manifold: 1st. They would stimulate pupils to industry. 2d. They would nerve the teachers to greater efforts. 3d. Principals would inquire of their teachers with more solicitude after the progress of such

classes. 4th. The result would enable teachers and principals to compare their work with that of other academies in the State. 5th. The Regents could obtain a good idea from these papers, how the pupils are taught in all these subjects in which the written papers are presented to them for examination; and thus be able to judge of the scholarship of the young ladies who annually graduate in the academies; of the preparation which the young men receive for college; and thus, at each annual Convocation, be able to give valuable practical instructions to the teachers on the modes of teaching each of these subjects, or assign this duty to such teachers as do best succeed.

The present system of written examinations satisfies us that pupils and teachers make unusual efforts to prepare for them.

As every principal is free to use the papers, or not, no one can object.

Then, with nothing to lose, and much to gain, we sincerely hope that we may have at least five papers per term, next year, for written examinations in higher English and the classics.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF MATTHEW VASSAR, THE FOUNDER OF VASSAR COLLEGE.

BY JOHN H. RAYMOND, LL. D.,
President of Vassar College.

Matthew Vassar was born on the 29th of April, 1792, in a small settlement near the city of Norwich, in Norfolk county, England. His father, James Vassar, was a farmer, and, with a bachelor brother (Thomas), was specially engaged in the culture of wool until their emigration to this country in 1796. James brought his wife and four children, the eldest two being daughters, and Matthew the youngest son. They were all non-conformists, of the Baptist persuasion. Ascending the Hudson from New York, they settled on a farm of one hundred and fifty acres, about three miles east of Poughkeepsie, then an inconsiderable village of a few hundred souls.

In their new home the Englishmen missed their accustomed national beverage, and longed for a draught of home-brewed ale. To supply the lack, some fine seed rath was procured from England; and in 1798 "the first field of barley ever seen in Dutchess county ripened on the Vassar farm, in the valley of the Wappingi. The fame of Vassar's ale soon spread among the neighbors. The thrifty family made it for sale; and it was not long before little Matthew and his mother might occasionally be seen on the road to Poughkeepsie, in the farm wagon, with a barrel of home-brewed ale, fresh eggs, and the yellowest of butter, for all which an ever-ready market was found."*

Three years later, James Vassar, having established himself successfully as a brewer in Poughkeepsie, proposed to take his two sons as assistants in the business. The elder entered willingly into the arrangement; but Matthew was irreconcilably averse to it; and when he learned that the only alternative was apprenticeship to a tanner, he resolved to take his fortunes into his own hand. He was just fourteen years of age when, with the consent and aid of his mother, he left his home, with a change of

* *Vassar College and its Founder*, by Benson J. Lossing, p. 19.

shirts and a pair of stockings tied up in his handkerchief, and seventy-five cents in his pocket; and, having crossed the river at the New Hamburg ferry, eight miles below Poughkeepsie, made his way on foot towards Newburgh. A farmer, in whose wagon he got permission to ride, proved a friend indeed. He took the lad to lodge at his house that night, and in the morning found a place for him in a country store. There Matthew Vassar, the boy, began to exhibit those traits of intelligence, integrity, diligence and thrift, which characterized him as a man through life; and in the habits formed while managing with thoughtful fidelity the interests of an employer, in the petty details of a small country store, he laid the foundations of a business capacity which in time proved equal to the direction of an extensive concern, on his own account, and to the wise care of a large estate. At the end of four years he returned home with one hundred and fifty dollars, saved from his earnings, and entered his father's establishment as bookkeeper and collector.

The next year, a destructive fire left the elder Vassar poor, and Matthew without a situation. To complete the affliction, two days later the older son, then twenty-two years of age, and the chief dependence of the family, was accidentally killed while at work endeavoring to save something from the ruins of the conflagration. But young Matthew proved equal to this sudden increase of his responsibilities. At once obtaining the use of a dye-house connected with his brother-in-law's cloth factory, and setting up a few small kettles and tubs, he began brewing on his own account, making ale at the rate of three barrels at a time, and delivering it to his customers with his own hands. It soon acquired a local popularity. In 1812, he opened the first "oyster saloon" of Poughkeepsie, in the basement of the new court-house; and the oysters helped the sale of the beer. Matthew, who was at this time twenty years of age, divided his days between brewing at the dye-house and distributing his ale and "grains" to purchasers in various parts of the village, and then spent his evenings till midnight in personal attendance at the saloon.

In 1814, a citizen of considerable wealth and some experience in brewing, who had watched with interest the youth's single-handed struggle with fortune, offered him the capital requisite for a more advantageous business. A partnership was formed, and an extensive brewery erected. In that establishment Mr. Vassar continued operations for more than twenty years, with

several changes of partners, experiencing the usual vicissitudes of fortune, but on the whole pursuing a career of steady and gradually-increasing prosperity. He early learned the secret of success in manufacturing, viz: that *by making a better article* than any of his competitors, he could command the market, and that, in order to do this without an outlay which would eat up his profits in advance, he must bring to the business *more information and intelligence* than others, and exercise closer watchfulness a wiser economy. These views, early adopted, guided the conduct of his business life, and, taken in connection with his strict integrity, account for its success.

In 1832, he took into partnership his two nephews, Matthew Vassar, jr., and John Guy Vassar, sons of his deceased brother. In 1836, a still more extensive establishment was erected on the banks of the Hudson, where the manufacture is still carried on under the original name of "M. Vassar & Co.," which has now had an honorable standing of more than half a century. The personal connection of Mr. Vassar with the firm did not entirely cease until 1866.

Mr. Vassar's local attachments were strong. He felt a warm affection for the town in which he had so successfully fought the battle of life; and when prosperity brought him leisure and means, he took a lively interest in measures to promote its improvement. He had, in return, the confidence of his fellow-towns-men, and received many marks of the esteem in which he was held. Though denied early advantages of education, he neglected no opportunities which subsequent life afforded him. His thirst for knowledge was insatiable. He was particularly interested in studying the practical applications of science in the useful arts, and became familiar with the works of Pope, Young, Cowper, and other of the poets who were the delight of his contemporaries. Throughout life he was a devout reader and intelligent student of the Bible. By such means he fitted himself to enjoy the society of intelligent and cultivated men, and acquired, not only a wide range of ideas, but no mean powers of expression, both by tongue and pen. The kindness of his heart was proverbial and many-sided. The poor and the unfortunate found him ever ready with sympathy and aid. He was an earnest friend of the schools of Poughkeepsie, both public and private; a generous contributor to the church whose worship he attended; an advocate of every enterprise which he believed conducive to the common weal; and

he was about equally known among his neighbors as, on the one hand, a man of exceeding caution and rigid exactness in business and, on the other, a man of genial and benevolent nature, and of an active public spirit.

It was an occasion of public interest which led to one of the most characteristic manifestations of his private activity. About the year 1850, a movement was started in Poughkeepsie for the establishment of a public cemetery, and Mr. Vassar was made chairman of a committee to select the grounds. A choice having been made, but no funds as yet forthcoming for the purchase, Mr. Vassar bought the property and held it, subject to the action of his associates. When, at last, another site was determined on, he resolved to create on the rude spot, thus thrown into his hands, a domain of beauty which should at once vindicate the wisdom of the original selection, and afford a lasting delight to himself, his friends, and his fellow citizens. He called the distinguished landscapist, Downing, to his aid, and responded to his pecuniary demands with a liberality which to many seemed extravagant, and which, in one whose fortune had had such beginnings, was certainly extraordinary. The result was the charming villa of SPRINGSIDE; and none who have seen it will deny that it abundantly justifies the generous expenditure which produced it. "Visitors agree," says Mr. Lossing, "that those acres, as now beautified and cultivated, are not surpassed by any spot in our country, of equal area, in variety of surface, pleasant views and vistas, and picturesque effects."

Mr. Vassar was still in full vigor when he found himself the possessor of a handsome fortune, and the passion for accumulation measurably satisfied; and, as he was without children, the question gradually acquired an absorbing interest in his mind, what disposition he should ultimately make of his property. This became a matter of frequent conversation between himself and his friends, and various plans were successively broached, discussed, and dismissed. When he was in England, in 1845, he visited the famous *Guy's Hospital*, on St. Thomas street, London, built in 1721, "in the lifetime" of the founder, and especially interesting to Mr. Vassar, on account of a blood-relationship between his own family and that of Guy. He there formed a definite purpose to imitate the munificence of his kinsman, by endowing, in Poughkeepsie, an asylum for the sick, and by doing it *in his lifetime*. The first part of this purpose he afterwards saw reason to

change, but from the latter he never swerved. From a favorite idea it grew into a settled conviction with him, that in no way could the founder of a great philanthropic institution so certainly assure himself of the accomplishment of his object as by having the foundations laid under his own supervision; and that no occupation can be imagined more becoming, dignified and delightful than this, for the closing years of a well-spent and successful life.

His special interest in female education originated in connection with the establishment of a young ladies' seminary, in Poughkeepsie, by a favorite niece, for whose use Mr. Vassar purchased the beautiful cottage and grounds since known as the *Cottage Hill Seminary*. She was an enthusiast in the cause of woman's education, and made good use of the opportunities afforded by her uncle's active sympathy and personal regard to press its claims on his consideration.

In 1855, Cottage Hill Seminary was purchased by Prof. M. P. Jewett, who had been for many years at the head of a flourishing female seminary in Alabama. Friendly relations were formed between him and Mr. Vassar; and, in the intercourse that followed, Mr. Vassar's interest developed into a settled purpose, and the purpose gradually ripened into a definite and noble plan. A COLLEGE, in the proper sense of the word—an institution, which should be to young women what Yale and Harvard are to young men, receiving them after suitable preparation at the academies and seminaries, and furnishing them with the means of a *true liberal education*—this was the conception which he would attempt to realize. At least, he would make the beginning; he would plant the germ, and leave it to others of a kindred spirit, and to a favoring Providence, to foster and perfect it. It was unoccupied ground. Millions had been spent on colleges for young men, at home and abroad, while *not a single endowed college for young women existed in all Christendom*. He was satisfied that, in taking this step, he was not only justified by the most weighty intrinsic considerations, but was acting in harmony with a general movement in the public mind—was providing for a want which had already begun to be felt and would grow more urgent with every passing year. He believed that many would follow in the same path; it would be honor enough for him to have led the way.

His purpose formed, Mr. Vassar proceeded to its execution with that mingled caution and decision which so strikingly characterized him. He corresponded, personally and by letter, with

many leading educators, and sought wisdom from every accessible source in maturing his plans. He carefully made out a list of twenty-eight persons, whom he invited to act as the first trustees of the college. A charter was obtained from the Legislature; and on the 26th day of February, 1861, the board was convened, and Mr. Vassar formally transferred to their keeping the funds he had appropriated for the founding of the college. No one, who was privileged to witness the impressive scene which occurred in the parlor of the Gregory House, in Poughkeepsie, on that morning, will ever cease to remember it as one of rare moral interest and grandeur. The bonds and mortgages, certificates of stock, and other securities, which constituted the sacred deposit, had been placed together in a small casket, the key of which Mr. Vassar held in his hand during his brief and dignified address:

“Gentlemen,” said he, “as my long-cherished purpose—to apply a large portion of my estate to some benevolent object—is now about to be accomplished, it seems proper that I should submit to you a statement of my motives, views and wishes.

“It having pleased God that I should have no descendants to inherit my property, it has long been my desire, after suitably providing for those of my kindred who have claims upon me, to make such a disposition of my means as should best honor God and benefit my fellow-men. At different periods I have regarded various plans with favor; but these have all been dismissed, one after another, until the subject of erecting and endowing a college for the education of young women was presented for my consideration. The novelty, grandeur and benignity of the idea arrested my attention. The more carefully I examined it, the more strongly it commended itself to my judgment and interested my feelings.”

After a brief and impressive statement of the grounds on which his decision rested, and of his wishes in regard to the character of the institution, Mr. Vassar proceeded as follows:

“And now, gentlemen of the board of trustees, I transfer to your possession and ownership the real and personal property which I have set apart for the accomplishment of my designs.”

With these words, he delivered the key into the hand of the president of the board of trustees, thus at a single stroke sacrificing one-half of his entire estate—the fruits of a long and laborious life—on the altar of an enlightened philanthropy.

A site had already been selected, and plans and specifications

drawn for the college edifice, and on the 4th of June, 1861, Mr. Vassar "broke ground" with his own hands, in the presence of a few of his friends, and with no other ceremony than a simple prayer for the blessing of God on the enterprise. The building was finished and fully equipped for its purposes by the autumn of 1865; and during this whole period Mr. Vassar, acting as chairman of the executive committee of the board, took the leading and responsible part in the direction of affairs.

The college was built "in troublous times." Almost simultaneously with the commencement of the work, the war of the Southern rebellion began, and continued through the four years required for its completion. Before the close of the first year there was a sudden and enormous rise in the prices of materials and labor; and this, together with the general derangement in the business of the country, baffled all the calculations of the contractor and the committee, and necessitated immense sacrifices in every branch of the work. Those who had looked upon the undertaking as chimerical, and predicted its failure from the beginning—and they were not a few—were now more than ever confident of the fulfillment of their prediction; and some ill-natured ones were not wanting, who, as they looked on the gigantic walls slowly rising year after year, began to whisper "Vassar's folly" as certain to be the designation of the completed structure. With Mr. Vassar it was a period of the greatest anxiety. It cost him more sleepless nights than he ever confessed, and taxed his resources more severely than the largest and boldest of his business operations. But he never blenched or faltered in his purpose; and, though he saw the outlay exceeding the estimates at the rate of thousands monthly during the entire process of erection and equipment, it was never once arrested until the last blow was struck and the college was in actual operation.

In the summer of 1865, the preparations for opening being substantially completed, Mr. Vassar resigned the position he had held on the executive committee. He felt that the enterprise had reached the point, at which he ought to be relieved from the prominent responsibility he had hitherto borne in its management. His long and varied experience in practical life had been of eminent service in superintending the material arrangements for the college; and he now called on others, whose previous experience better fitted them to shape and direct its educational machinery, to assume the charge. He had just completed his seventy-third

year; and, though his general health was still good, yet the trying labor of the last four years, and certain monitions he had received of the approach of age, made him not unwilling to lay down the burdens of active life and content himself with observing the further development of his project in other hands.

The college was a success from the beginning. The first announcement of Mr. Vassar's purpose, on the occasion of the legislative act incorporating the college, was greeted with universal acclamations of applause, both in the Legislature and throughout the country. On the day of opening, it was filled with students from the best families, and of a high average grade of promise. After the opening, its popularity increased rather than diminished, so that by the close of the second year it became necessary to provide for an additional number of students. The satisfaction afforded Mr. Vassar by this outward prosperity, was very great; but it was far surpassed by the pleasure he took in watching the interior working of the institution. He never wearied of walking through its spacious halls and apartments, filled with busy workers in the noblest of human employments, and witnessing their free and happy use of the abundant facilities which he had placed at their disposal. He visited the college daily when his health permitted, cultivated a friendly acquaintance with the professors and students, and took a lively interest in the discussion of all the questions that came up in the current life of the institution. He was ever sure of a warm and loving welcome there. Every face, as he appeared, was lighted up with a smile of joy and affection; and the feeling did not fail to find modes of expression as delicate as they were beautiful and touching. Among its more formal manifestations was the establishing of his birthday, under the title of "Founder's Day," as the chief festival of the college year, to be annually commemorated with appropriate observances under the immediate direction of the young ladies. Poetry, recitations and dramatic representations, having special reference to the day, form the literary part of the entertainment, while the accompaniments of decoration, ceremony, and festal cheer, task the invention and artistic taste of the fair providers. To them a labor of love, these were to Mr. Vassar occasions of affecting interest. The feeling of the college towards himself, as "Founder, Father, Friend," received at such times an explicit and emphatic expression which under ordinary circumstances would have been unsuitable; and the sight of so many happy youth exerting themselves

to do him honor, in beautiful forms, and the presence of his old friends and neighbors, gathering round him with kindly hand-grasps and warm congratulations, might well move a heart of less sensibility than his. On one such occasion he whispered into the ear of the writer, on whose arm he chanced to be leaning: "This is almost more happiness than I can bear. This one day more than repays me for all I have done." Indeed, had Mr. Vassar's sole object been to secure, out of his estate, the largest amount of happiness to himself before his death, he could not have selected a more fortunate investment; and it is not too much to say, that the expenditure of his fortune yielded him, during the last three years of his life, more genuine and unmixed satisfaction than all he had experienced in acquiring it throughout his long and prosperous business career. So true is it, that "it is more blessed to give than to receive."

Though Mr. Vassar had withdrawn from the executive committee, he continued an active member of the board of trustees to the end of his life. He kept himself informed as to all measures adopted or proposed for the improvement of the college, and participated freely in the discussion of all questions which divided the opinion of its guardians. His views, though never obtruded in a way which could embarrass others in the discharge of their duty, were always expressed with a decision and frankness which were warranted, not merely by his personal relations to the college, but by the wisdom and sagacity that his counsels ever evinced. He was accustomed to embody the matured results of his reflections during the year in a written address, which he read at the annual meeting of the trustees. In this form he proposed to leave on record such an expression of his views and aims as, without restricting the free action of the trustees, would render mistake as to his own wishes practically impossible. The variety of points touched on in these addresses, and the fullness of intelligence with which they are discussed, attest alike his unflagging interest in the enterprise, and the singular freshness and fertility of his mind to the very close of life.

The last occasion on which he met his associates of the board was as memorable as the first. It was on the 23d of June, 1868—a beautiful morning in the month of flowers. Mr. Vassar had for some time been suffering from a functional derangement of the heart, which at times occasioned him great difficulty of breathing, and which, without materially affecting his general health, had

greatly reduced his strength. But that morning he rose feeling more vigorous than usual, dressed himself, according to his custom, with scrupulous care, and drove to the college at the hour appointed for the annual meeting of the board. It was the day preceding commencement, and the college was full of the cheerful bustle of preparation. Parents and friends were gathering and making arrangements to take the students home, and the light of the coming vacation was reflected in many a happy face. Among them all none shone with a serener joy than that of the venerable man, who moved from group to group, the observed of all observers, with a kindly look and salutation for all, and a certain radiance of beauty which many noticed, and spoke of afterwards, as not of earthly origin.

At 11 A. M. the board convened, and, immediately after the organization of the meeting, Mr. Vassar proceeded to read his annual address. It was somewhat longer than usual, and, as his tones were feeble and he read sitting, the members of the board gathered closer round him and listened in profound silence. Suddenly, when he had almost finished, his voice faltered and ceased, the paper dropped from his hand upon the table by which he sat, his head fell back upon the chair—and he was gone! Without a struggle or sign of pain, his spirit had passed away; and after the lapse of a few moments, during which the machinery of life seemed running gently down, his body rested in its last repose.

When, an hour later, the trustees reassembled to listen to the closing paragraph of the address, it was found to have an almost prophetic interest:

“ And now, gentlemen, on closing these remarks, I would humbly and solemnly implore the Divine goodness to continue his smiles and favor on your institution, and to bestow on all hearts connected therewith his love and blessing, having peculiarly protected us by his providence through all our college trials for three consecutive years, without a single death in our board, or serious illness or death of one of the pupils within the college walls. Wishing you, gentlemen, a continuance of health and happiness, I bid you a cordial and final farewell. Thanking you kindly for your official attentions and services, and not expecting, from my advanced years and increasing infirmities, to meet with you officially again, I implore the Divine goodness to guide and direct you aright in all your councils.”

Had Mr. Vassar read these words himself, they might have been received as comparatively conventional and common-place; but, in the light of the solemn event which had just occurred, they were felt to possess a peculiar and solemn significance. If he had been permitted to choose the circumstances of his death,

he could hardly have desired a change. He had struck the finishing blow in what he called "the last great work of his life," and he had done it with characteristic deliberation and care. During the preceding winter he had revised and carefully rewritten his will, and made a disposition of his worldly estate which he intended should be final; and in the annual address, which he believed would be his last, he had taken great pains to incorporate all that he wished to say in regard to the future management of the college. He had been permitted to say it all personally, and under circumstances which would invest his parting counsels with a sacred interest; and only that portion of his written communication was reserved for another voice to utter, which depended for its true interpretation and profoundest effect on the silence of his own. His work then was done, completely and well done; and there,—on the field of philanthropic effort to which he had consecrated his well-earned means and his latest energies, the monuments of his enlightened liberality standing on every side around him, amidst his chosen fellow laborers and with the implements of his generous toil in his hands,—there, just as the last stroke was struck, his life and his labors ceased together. "He was not, for God took him"—and who can hesitate to recognize, in the remarkable circumstances of his death, a seal of the Divine approbation and acceptance?

In addition to the four hundred and eight thousand dollars originally given, Mr. Vassar had, in his lifetime, expended twenty thousand dollars for an art-gallery, and advanced for building purposes, at various times, an aggregate of seventy-five thousand dollars on mortgages which were canceled by his will. By his will, also, the college is made the principal inheritor of his remaining property. The income of fifty thousand dollars goes to assist students of unusual promise; fifty thousand to the maintenance of free lectures of a high order in the college; fifty thousand to the library and cabinet; and the remainder, estimated as at least of equal value, to repairs and improvements on the buildings and other real estate.

When we think of the beginnings of this remarkable man; his lack of early advantages; his long and arduous struggle with fortune; the character of his business, and his rigid devotion to its demands, we should hardly expect to find in him *the first*—we might almost say, as yet *the only—great patron of liberal education for woman*. And our wonder and admiration are increased when

we see that his advancement to this honor was not a happy accident, but was the result of his own deliberate and well-considered choice; and when we further observe the wise and sagacious steps by which he proceeded in the development of his plan, and by which he secured the accomplishment of its ends. In view of all the circumstances, we cannot but regard him as specially raised up, in the providence of God, to be the pioneer in this long-neglected field of Christian philanthropy; and we trust that so noble an example may inspire others of kindred spirit and like ample means, to carry out and complete the beginning he has made in Poughkeepsie, or to lay elsewhere new foundations in the important work of Woman's Highest Culture.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF PROF. CHESTER DEWEY, D. D., LL. D., Late Professor of Chemistry and Natural History in the University of Rochester.

BY MARTIN B. ANDERSON, LL. D.,
President of the University of Rochester.

One object of this Convocation is to promote the recognition of public instruction as one of the learned professions. All enlightened men must admit that it requires special training, skill, and accomplishments. It is certainly entitled to honors and rewards, far beyond what the public have yet been willing to yield to it. It is certain that the American people need education upon this point. Perhaps we can reach this end in no way more readily than by calling attention to the services, achievements and success of those who have distinguished themselves as teachers.

Chester Dewey, D. D., LL. D., at the time of his death, Emeritus Professor in the University of Rochester, was in two respects a representative man. He was not only a typical teacher, but he also held a distinguished position among the few who at an early day cultivated and organized the study of natural science in America. In these two relations we propose to speak of his life and labors.

Dr. Dewey was born in Sheffield, Berkshire county, Massachusetts, October 25th, 1784. His father was a man of strong character and clear head, who seems to have had the will and the capacity to give his son a most symmetrical training, both moral and intellectual. In this work the father was aided by a wife of singular piety, cheerfulness and moral excellence. It was doubtless to these early formative forces that Dr. Dewey owed much of that moral completeness which adorned the whole of his subsequent life. After a youth spent in alternate labor on the farm and study in the common school, he fitted himself to enter the college at Williamstown, Massachusetts, in his eighteenth year. He graduated in 1806, taking rank as a scholar among the first in his class. During his residence in college he became the subject of those deep religious convictions, by which he ever after ordered his entire life. In 1807, he was licensed to preach by the Berk-

shire Congregationalist Association. After teaching and preaching for a few months at Stockbridge and Tyringham, Massachusetts, he was appointed a tutor in Williams College. After two years' service in this capacity, he was elected (at the age of twenty-six) professor of mathematics and natural philosophy. He held this position till 1827, a period of seventeen years. During this time the college was poor, and struggling for life. Of necessity, a heavy burden of labor and responsibility rested upon the officers of instruction. Among these, Dr. Dewey bore a distinguished part. In times of confusion and internal disorder, his influence over the students is said to have been most salutary and powerful. According to the custom of the time, his department of instruction included not only mathematics and physics, but the whole range of chemistry and the natural sciences.

He entered upon the work of accumulating and organizing the apparatus and collections requisite for the study of chemistry and natural history, with great zeal and enthusiasm; while he was equally earnest in giving instruction in the severer portions of the broad department for whose cultivation in the college he was made responsible. He fitted up a laboratory, and commenced making collections for the illustration of botany, mineralogy and geology. This was accomplished mainly by personal labor and exchanges with those engaged in similar pursuits in our own and other countries. These labors gave the initial impulse to the cultivation of the natural sciences in Williams College, and laid the foundations of its now large and valuable illustrative collections.

In 1827, Dr. Dewey resigned the chair which he had so long held. The friends of education in Western Massachusetts had been impressed with the necessity of providing more systematic and vigorous instruction for young men preparing for college and immediate business pursuits. An opportunity for public service of this sort of more immediate usefulness, as it seemed to him, than was afforded by his college chair, was found in the establishment of a gymnasium at Pittsfield. He removed to Pittsfield, where he had previously been engaged as professor of chemistry in the medical college, and became principal of this institution. He remained in Pittsfield nine years, at the same time occupying the chair of chemistry in the medical colleges in Pittsfield and in Woodstock, Vermont. At the end of this period he removed to Rochester, New York, and took charge of the collegiate institute

in that city. This institution, in connection with Professor N. W. Benedict, he conducted with high success for fourteen years. In 1850, at the establishment of the University of Rochester, he was elected professor of chemistry and natural history in that institution, and continued to discharge the duties of that chair for a little more than ten years. He retired from active duty at the ripe age of seventy-six. It was during the period of his connection with the university that I first became acquainted with Dr. Dewey, personally and in the work of instruction.

In attempting an estimate of the services and worth of our venerated friend, we are naturally led first to speak of him as a teacher. In his chosen profession he was an enthusiast. His whole life was absorbed in obtaining knowledge and in imparting it to others. In the street, in the social circle, in the professor's chair, he was always the teacher. No person could come within the sphere of his influence without carrying away some new fact or thought, or being inoculated with new love for moral or natural truth. In accumulating knowledge he seemed always to have in mind the idea of imparting it to others. In his mind new truths seemed to fall spontaneously into the form best adapted for presentation to the learner. He always conceived of nature and man as belonging to a common system, related to each other in every part, and designed to illustrate a common moral purpose. This naturally led him to estimate new investigations and discoveries to be important mainly as they served to set forth the moral dignity of man, to promote his happiness, and elevate his character. His intellectual life was a beautiful commentary on the remark of Gibbon, that "it is a greater glory to science to develop and perfect mankind, than it is to enlarge the boundaries of the known universe." He appeared to study nature, not so much for the reputation which knowledge or discovery would secure to him, as from a tender affection for her various forms and aspects considered as exhibiting a grand connection of benevolent uses, means and ends, revealing the goodness and wisdom of the Almighty. Hence, he was utterly free from those petty jealousies which so often manifest themselves among scientific men. He rejoiced in scientific progress, to whomsoever it was due, and was always most generous in his estimate of the achievements of others. Every discovery which developed new elements in the Divine plan was to him a matter for personal rejoicing.

Whittier's verses, describing St. Pierre's sympathizing relation to nature, are more strictly applicable to Dr. Dewey than to the brilliant Frenchman:

“ She laid her great heart bare to him,
Its loves and sweet accords—he saw
The beauty of her perfect law.
* * * * * * * * *
And thus he seemed to hear the song
That swept of old the stars along,
And to his eyes the earth once more
Its fresh and primal beauty bore.”

To his mind there was no broad separation between the moral and the material order. But he was intensely averse to that false philosophy which seeks unity at the expense of reducing all thought and volition to dynamics, making no distinction between man and a crystal. To his mind, the whole scheme of material things was ever throbbing and quivering with divine life, benevolence and power. This profound recognition of God in the modes in which he has revealed himself, rounded and completed his moral and intellectual life, and made him, by way of eminence, the Good Teacher.

His scientific attainments were supplemented by various and thorough knowledge in the department of critical scholarship. This gave a breadth and many-sidedness to his mind, which is so conspicuously wanting in many of the scientific men of our time. In the lecture room, Dr. Dewey was exact and brief in his statements of principles; clear and full in his illustrations of difficulties; sympathetic with the dull in intellect, and patient with the wayward and inattentive. As a colleague, he was uniformly unselfish and courteous, bearing his share of all common burdens, ready to receive suggestions, never taking offence at trifles, exhibiting always that rare combination of natural qualities and acquired habits which distinguishes the Christian gentleman. He loved his work, continued in it during his whole active life, and neither sought nor wished for any other employment. It was his lot to have been connected with schools and colleges which had been recently founded or were in the process of formation. For this reason his labors were the more self-denying.

He also represents two departments of the teacher's profession. He went from a college chair, in which he had been eminently

successful, into an academy, and from an academy back again to a college chair, simply at the call of duty, apparently without a thought that dignity or position was in the slightest degree affected by either transfer. His only desire was to ascertain the position in which he could be most useful to his fellow-men. In view of these facts in our friend's career, I cannot forbear to note the lesson which they convey to our profession. As teachers, we should always bear in mind that we belong to a brotherhood laboring in a common work for a common end; that rank and dignity among us do not depend upon the accidents of position, but upon high attainments and faithful services—no matter where those attainments are made or those services rendered. In this respect the legal profession gives us a worthy example. From the chief justice of the United States to the village attorney, all lawyers, as members of the profession, are brethren, and equal. Let us frown upon any attempt to separate our profession into sects and orders on the false assumption that there are, or can be, rival dignities or clashing interests among those engaged in the high and benevolent work of training the minds and characters of the young.

As a man of science, Dr. Dewey belongs to a class whose abilities and public services are liable, in our time, to be overlooked or underrated. I refer to those men who were pioneers in the work of cultivating and popularizing natural science in our country. When Amos Eaton, Parker Cleveland, Robert Hare, Benjamin Silliman, Edward Hitchcock, and Chester Dewey began their labors, the natural sciences, as they are now understood, had hardly an existence. Since that time the discoveries and investigations upon which they rest have, in great part, been made or matured.

Dr. Dewey left college in 1806. Just about this period that remarkable impulse was given to scientific inquiry, resulting in an almost simultaneous development of chemistry, zoölogy, crystallography, botany, and geology, which rendered the first half of the nineteenth century so supremely illustrious. What are now elementary truths, finding a place in every text-book, were then either undiscovered or new and strange, waiting the time of their acceptance or verification. The very year of Dr. Dewey's graduation, Davy made his discovery of the metallic bases of the alkalies, and promulgated the electro-chemical theory by extending and applying the discoveries of Galvani and Volta. A few years

previous, Lavoisier and his associates had published their new system of chemical nomenclature. In 1807, Dalton's law of chemical equivalents and definite proportions was first given to the world. Häuy, Weiss and Mohs published their new views on crystallography from 1800 to 1809, while Berzelius and others were at the same time developing the chemical system of mineralogical classification. The natural system of botany, founded by the younger Jussieu, was, during this period, slowly making its way to public favor. Cuvier's "Fossil Bones," which first raised geology to the rank of a science, was not published till 1812. The "Animal Kingdom," which rendered a similar service to systematic zoölogy, appeared in 1817. William Smith, who, in England, was learning to describe strata in different parts of the island, and to identify them by their fossil remains, gave his results to the public about the same period, his most important work having been published in 1815. Many other facts in the history of science, which will occur to those who now hear me, illustrate the fact that our scientific pioneers labored under the disadvantage of having begun their career with the infancy of the sciences which they cultivated. They grew intellectually with the growth of natural knowledge, and their active lives stretched over the whole period during which these sciences were born and reached maturity.

The scientific attainments of these men were not made like those of young naturalists in our time, by the study of a body of coherent and established truths, or by the accumulation of new facts which take their places naturally under laws already verified, or fall into classifications already fixed and named. Their attainments were made amidst sudden and almost violent revolutions in method and changes in fundamental ideas, which were startling to the timid and bewildering to the weak. It required no ordinary courage and manliness, no ordinary faith in the universality and coherence of the Almighty's plan in the universe, to accept and promulgate ideas which seemed subversive of all established opinions—utterly superseding and setting at naught the "wisdom of the ancients."

The facilities for the acquisition of new facts, and the testing and verification of the new hypotheses, were inadequate in the extreme. Laboratories and apparatus were to be created or invented. Cabinets of minerals were meagre, and collections of fossils were almost unknown. A single illustration in point we

give from an article in *Silliman's Journal* for 1865. It will be borne in mind that Professor Silliman, senior, was appointed professor of chemistry and natural history in Yale College, in 1805. The college was then over a century old, and under the presidency of Dr. Dwight. We are told that "not only the chemical laboratory, but also the cabinet of minerals, owed its existence to his [Professor Silliman's] energy. * * * About the time when Mr. Silliman was appointed a professor, the entire mineralogical and geological collection of Yale College was transported to Philadelphia in one small box, that the specimens might be named by Dr. Adam Seybert, then fresh from Werner's school at Freiberg, the only man in this country who could be regarded as a mineralogist sufficiently trained for that work." This illustrates the facilities for the study and illustration of natural science at Yale College, and we can readily infer the discouraging circumstances under which Dr. Dewey began his work and collections in Williamstown. Such facts ought to impress the present generation with an idea of the zeal, energy and ability of men who, in such a state of things, could devote themselves to scientific pursuits.

It should be recollected, also, that these pioneers in science were not left free to devote any considerable portion of strength and time to investigation and the accumulation of specimens. They were generally overburdened with the work of giving instruction in subjects now distributed into three or four departments. Transactions of learned societies were procured with difficulty. Scientific journals were few, and in our country unknown. Communication with Europe was slow and expensive. The languages of modern Europe had not then been introduced into the courses of public education, and few, comparatively, could command the time or means to acquire them, or to travel abroad for the purposes of observation and study. These sciences, themselves, being in a formative state, were not differentiated, nor their limits marked out. These men of necessity studied nature in the mass, meeting often the unclassified subject-matter of several sciences in a single investigation. They constantly encountered the difficulties resulting from faulty and incoherent terminology. Their memories were burdened in keeping abreast with the changes of names which rapid scientific progress made necessary. Classes as well as names were in a state of constant flux, for we all know that an adequate terminology always follows and

never precedes the knowledge of systems and laws. Their experience confirmed the maxim of the French savan, that "science est un langue bien fait." The tax upon time and memory, requisite to keep abreast of the rapid movement of thought and discovery, was enormous. Their mental experience became a register of the mass of the false hypotheses, blunders, changes, revolutions, discoveries and generalizations which make up the brilliant and varied history of modern science. They were obliged to acquire an equal facility in learning and unlearning. The task of laying aside what had been painfully acquired, and which some brilliant discovery had suddenly proved to be useless or erroneous, was severer than the acquisition of what was new.

In addition to all this, they were obliged to make a place, in an already occupied curriculum of college study, for their favorite studies, and to vindicate to the public mind their dignity and value. Like the early settlers of our unbroken forests, they were obliged to remove obstacles, and furnish a career for those who were to come after them. It is not strange, then, that the attainments of such men were affected and modified by the conditions of their scientific life—that their knowledge was less specific in its form, less methodical in its arrangement, than that of their successors at the present day. It is not strange that in the presentation of subjects they did not take note always of those metes and bounds which the accumulated thought of half a century has set up—that their mental furniture was encyclopædic and compendious, rather than minute, classified and exhaustive. The immense range of the natural sciences, now that the work of evolution has been so far completed, makes specialization in study a necessity. But it may be carried too far, both in the neglect of general culture in the scientific investigator himself, and in the failure to attend to branches of science cognate to that specially chosen for cultivation. We believe that in the end nothing is gained to science by the neglect of those elements of scholarship which belong, by common consent, to liberal education, in order to concentrate the activity of an entire life, from boyhood to age, upon a particular branch of science. Against such a course the whole example and precept of our scientific fathers was directed. There is, in our own time, a tendency to confound the spheres of professional and general education, and to sacrifice liberal culture to special attainment. This seems to me an evil which should be resisted. A distinguished chemist remarked, not long since, that

it was a cause for constant regret that his students in analytical chemistry came to him so often without liberal culture and discipline in letters, and general scientific knowledge and method.

We may also question whether the disposition to specialize, among investigators and professional scientific men, may not be carried to excess. May not what is gained to science in the more rapid accumulation of facts, through exclusive devotion to some narrow range of inquiry, be more than lost through the resulting deficiency in breadth of view? A man who carries specialization to extremes, will become intellectually purblind, and fail utterly in an adequate comprehension of the material and moral cosmos, considered each as parts of one vast whole, finding its unity in the mind of God. Said a great naturalist, the other day: "I am more and more convinced of the solidarity of the sciences. I am more and more inclined to distrust the observations of a man who is familiar with but one narrow branch of inquiry." Does not knowledge, by such specialization, grow faster than wisdom, breadth and power? The effect of extreme division of labor, in manufactures and trade, in diminishing general capacity, intellectual and physical, has been often noted by economists. The guardians of public education, as well as of scientific progress, may well be warned of an analogous danger. "The more deeply the sciences are investigated," says a great historian, "the more clearly is it seen that they are all connected. They resemble a vast forest, every tree of which appears, at first sight, to be isolated and separate, but, on digging beneath the surface, their roots are all found interlaced with each other." Whatever advantage comes from a broad survey of the field of scientific inquiry, accrued to our scientific pioneers from the very necessities of their position. The broad catholic sympathy of these men with all branches of science, stands in sharp contrast to that narrow scientific sectarianism which has too often disgraced scientific associations on both sides of the Atlantic.

At a time when scientific men of certain sympathies and opinions speak of religious men as obstacles to scientific progress, it is well to bear in mind the fact, that the fathers of American science were, almost to a man, earnest believers in the divine authority of Christianity. The institutions of learning in which, and through which, they labored, were all of them founded, endowed and sustained through the efforts and sacrifices of religious men, and especially of the clergy. The pursuits of physical science are

superficially thought unfavorable to moral and religious growth. But so long as we can recall the elevated spiritual life of such men as Silliman, Hitchcock and Dewey, we need no other refutation of such an idea.

In connection with his labors in giving instruction in colleges, medical schools and academies, Dr. Dewey was not unmindful of his obligations to make some additions to the sum of scientific knowledge. He was for forty years a constant contributor to *Silliman's Journal*. He always studied with pen in hand, and was a constant writer on scientific subjects for the newspaper press. He became early in life an enthusiastic student of botany, and contributed very largely to the scientific knowledge of the *carices*. Dr. Asa Gray, our great botanist, classes Dr. Dewey with Schweinitz and Torrey, and speaks of his writings on caricography as an "elaborate monograph patiently prosecuted through more than forty years." He further says that, in connection with the two botanists above mentioned, "he laid the foundation and ensured the popularity of the study of the sedges in this country." Unfortunately, Dr. Dewey did not write any systematic treatise on this subject, but his numerous short articles represent the progress of his own observations and studies, and give a history of the progress of that department of botanical science. Dr. Dewey wrote a History of the Herbaceous Plants of Massachusetts, which was published by the State. He contributed, also, the article "Carices," to Wood's Botany. Up to the last year of his life, our friend's mind showed the vigor and enthusiasm of his early years, and he was constantly writing on scientific topics. His last publications of any length were two review articles, one entitled "The true place of man in zoölogy;" the other, "An examination of some reasonings against the unity of mankind." These articles were read first before a literary association in Rochester, of which the Doctor was a member. They displayed a full and intelligent familiarity with all the most recent discoveries and speculations bearing upon these difficult and complicated questions. His discussions were conducted with an ability, clearness and learning which, at his age, were surprising. His industry in study was unremitting, and up to the very last year of his life his mind was open to examine, with utter freedom from prejudice, any new discovery or speculation which was worthy of attention. His last labors were the orderly arrangement of his large collection of sedges which had been for so many years accumulating on

his hands, and copying out his meteorological journal. Just before his death, while engaged upon his journal, his hand became unable to hold his pen, and, calling for the aid of his daughter, he placidly remarked that this would be his last report to the Smithsonian Institution. He died calmly, of old age, on the 15th of December, 1867, in his eighty-third year. He had the control of his faculties to the last, sustained by an unfaltering trust in the blessed life hereafter.

A few remarks further, and we close. All who knew Dr. Dewey were impressed by the freshness and vigor of his mind even up to the latest period of his life. I have often asked myself this question: How did Dr. Dewey retain so fully his mental activity, and grow old so gracefully? This result seemed to me due, in the first place, to his constant effort to keep abreast with the movement of modern discovery and thought. He never was satisfied with falling back on past experience or old attainments. He believed that morally, intellectually and physically, man is making progress. He held it to be his duty as long as he lived to contribute to that progress, and to be himself a vital part of the movement. He was always at work; always acquiring new ideas. Morally and scientifically, his mind and sympathies were with the future, and not with the past alone. Hence, his brain never became inactive; the currents of his intellectual life never grew stagnant and dull. His topics of conversation were always of the present and the actual, or of some new application, modification or adjustment of the old and the tried.

Again: He kept up, in a wonderful degree, communion and sympathy with the young. With them he established friendships and intimacies. In these intimacies, his stores of knowledge and ripened wisdom were poured out freely, while the young gave back to him the cheerfulness, confidence and hope natural to their time of life. He was always a guide and helper to young and struggling men of talent. The number of such who, by his impulse, advice and encouragement, were led to honor and success, was very great. No young scientific laborer ever failed to find a wise and sympathetic friend in Dr. Dewey. Nothing gave him greater joy than the rising distinction of some protégé whom he had started on the road to fame. His beautiful old age most emphatically belied Horace's oft-quoted description of the aged man:

“Difficilis querulus laudator temporis acti
Se puer, castigator censorque minorum.”

No one was more warmly welcomed in society, by old and young, than he.

He kept his youth, too, through the simplicity, purity and elevation of his moral and religious life. His trust in the moral order was as habitual and as firm as it was in the law of universal gravitation. This gave steadiness to his moral action, and so abated the ordinary friction and annoyances of life, that he seemed, to a casual observer, almost insensible to their action. For fifteen years I was favored with the friendship of Dr. Dewey. A large part of that time I met him daily as a colleague. I was associated with him during the period (always trying to an old man) when, at the age of seventy-six, he ceased to discharge the active duties of his chair—and I can say, with perfect sincerity, that to me and his colleagues he seemed incapable of injustice or bigotry, of meanness or malice, of envy or suspicion. We all honored him as a sage; we loved him as a father. I have never yet met a man who so completely, as he, illustrated the moral elevation and spiritual beauty of the Great Teacher's sermon on the Mount. What he was to his family and friends, he was to the multitude who knew him but partially and indirectly. To the whole population of Rochester his presence in the streets was a benediction.

Brethren of the Convocation: May we not, as teachers, learn a special lesson from the fragrant memory of our departed colleague and friend? Our business is to mould and train the young. Like him, we should seek to keep our minds and hearts from falling, ere their time, into the "sere and yellow leaf," that like him we may be able to do our work after "our eyes become dim and our natural force abated." When the teacher becomes so heart-worn and world-weary that he can no longer sympathize with the thoughts, the hopes and fears, the joys and sorrows, and even the waywardness of the young, he ceases to be fit for the exalted functions of his calling.

UNIVERSITY NECROLOGY.

In addition to the foregoing papers, commemorative of Professors Anthon and Dewey, and Mr. Vassar, the following notices of other members of the Convocation, whose decease occurred during the year 1867-8, have been furnished:

Col. Phineas Staunton, A. M.

Col. Staunton, late Vice-Chancellor of Ingham University, died at Quito, Ecuador, September 5, 1867, at the age of fifty years.

He was a native of Wyoming, in this State, and a son of Major General Phineas Staunton, who was distinguished in the war of 1812.

His department in the great work of education was that of Art. His natural taste developed itself in very early life; and at the age of eighteen, with almost no instruction, he had, in some of our Southern cities, attained considerable pecuniary success in the line of portrait painting. The ultimate aim of his genius, however, and from which he could not be permanently diverted, was to represent upon canvas the highest forms of truth and beauty.

Becoming providentially connected with Ingham University, a portion of his time was cheerfully given to his general duties to the institution. In that position he was characterized by fidelity and energy, and by a strong appreciation of the cause of woman's higher education.

When his imperiled country demanded his services, he cheerfully left his studio, and upon the altar of liberty he laid his life, which would have been taken at the head of his regiment, if the ball which prostrated him had been a trifle less spent.

Still, he was specially distinguished as an artist. His portrait of Henry Clay, in the City Hall of Brooklyn, was so admirable a production that he was invited to produce a historical picture of Clay on the floor of the Senate, which is now in the University

of Kentucky, at Ashland, and which, by the family of that great statesman, is regarded as the best portrait of him in existence.

But it was in religious paintings that the genius of Col. Staunton seemed to find its most perfect and satisfactory expression. He has left behind him several such pictures of great excellence, while his "Ascension" is probably unrivaled in any gallery of American, if not of European art.

In June, 1867, he became a member of an expedition, under the patronage of Williams College and the Smithsonian Institution, for the exploration of parts of South America, including the Andes and the Amazon, intending to gather numerous specimens, and to make sketches of natural scenery with which to enrich his studio and the halls of the institution with which he had been connected for a quarter of a century. He only lived to reach the capital of Ecuador. His burial was the first of a Protestant which had taken place, for hundreds of years, under the protection of the government of that South American and Catholic State.

Prof. John F. Richardson, A. M., University of Rochester.

It has been the misfortune of the University of Rochester to lose by death during the past year, two professors, both of whom had been connected with it from its first organization. Attention has already been called to the life and labors of Dr. Dewey. It remains to say a few words concerning another, who, though less widely known than Dr. Dewey, deserves most honorable mention among those who have served the State of New York in the work of public instruction.

Professor John F. Richardson was born in Vernon, Oneida county, New York, February 7th, 1808. He received his early training in the académies at Hamilton and Chittenango. He then studied the profession of law in the office of Judges Stover and Gridley, in Hamilton, and in that of Judge Addison Gardiner, in Rochester. In 1828, having changed his views regarding a profession, he entered the literary and theological institution at Hamilton, which a short time after was reorganized and chartered as Madison University. After finishing his course of liberal and theological study, he was appointed a tutor, and subsequently professor of Latin. He held this professorship until the founding

of the University of Rochester, in 1850, when he resigned, and was elected professor of Latin in this last named institution. This chair he retained until his death. In the summer of 1867, he was taken ill of a chronic disease which gradually increased in severity until, in the year following, he was relieved from duty in the hope that a year's rest would restore him to his usual health. But contrary to expectation, the disease was too deep-seated to yield either to rest or remedies, and he became gradually worse until his death, February 10th, 1868.

As a man, he was universally respected for his fidelity to every trust, his equanimity of temper, and the unspotted purity of his life. As a teacher, he was distinguished for his accuracy as a philologist, and the industry and conscientious care with which he discharged the duties of his office. His early legal studies fitted him for special accuracy of investigation into all questions connected with the legal system and political organization of the Roman State, and he was remarkably clear and skillful in the exposition of all Latin literature, conversant with those subjects. His studies in etymology were thorough and accurate, and his knowledge of the Latin construction was exact, and his translations particularly correct and elegant. He was a good Greek scholar, and for some years of his life discharged a portion of the duties of the Greek chair with entire satisfaction to his colleagues and pupils. His knowledge of the French and German languages was for the purpose of reading, critical, and he used them constantly and with facility in his studies.

In the work of instruction he was remarkable for his promptness and regularity, and his colleagues reposed the most unfailing trust in his integrity and personal honor. With his pupils he was uniformly gentle and sympathetic, always patient and ready to remove difficulties, while he was stern and prompt in enforcing discipline upon the rude and discourteous. His pupils, scattered over the Union, always have regarded him with unfeigned gratitude and respect.

For his excellencies as a man, a citizen and a Christian; for his ability, attainments and fidelity as a teacher, he deserves honorable remembrance from the Convocation, while his personal excellencies will always remain vividly present to the minds of his pupils, and colleagues in the work of instruction.

Prof. M. M. Marsh, M. D., Rutgers Female College.

Marvin Manville Marsh was born at Pompey, New York, in 1812. He grew up upon his father's farm, and early exhibited a fondness for nature and her works, which formed a part of his lifelong character. Under the wise influence of the Rev. Mr. Huntington, of Pompey Hill Academy, he was prepared for Hamilton College, from which he graduated, with the Latin Salutatory Oration, in 1836. Immediately on leaving college, he took charge temporarily of Manlius Academy, which he left in the autumn of the same year, to enter upon the headship of the new academy at Eaton. Here he remained for four years, a most successful teacher; but he had resolved to devote himself to medicine as his profession, and, after two years of devoted application, graduated at Albany, with high honor, in 1841.

He at once entered upon the duties of a physician, in his native county, and soon exhibited those qualities of unselfish devotion and professional zeal which have made his name honored and loved. Severe professional labor, however, in connection with intense application to study, soon overpowered his health, and brought him to the point of death; but he recovered, at length, although with greatly impaired powers both of body and mind. He was compelled to return to teaching, as his health was inadequate to the labors of his chosen vocation, until 1857. During these years, however, he was twice chosen to represent Onondaga county in the State Medical Association, of which he was made a member, and by which he was twice sent as delegate to the National American Medical Association. He was also, for many years, a careful and exact contributor to the meteorological department of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington.

At the outbreak of the war, in 1861, Dr. Marsh was very desirous to offer his services in some capacity. His anxious and earnest sympathy with the Government made him restless in his Northern home. At length, quite unexpectedly, he was offered a position under the United States Sanitary Commission, as Chief Agent and Medical Inspector in the Department of the South, which he at once accepted.

He went to Beaufort, South Carolina, in February, 1863, and remained there until the close of the war. During this period his labors were varied and immense. All the stores of the Sanitary Commission in this department passed through his hands, for

inspection and distribution. He was present at many engagements, including the second attack on Pocotaligo, the capture of John's Island, and the terrible assault on Fort Wagner, where Col. Shaw's Fifty-fifth Massachusetts Regiment suffered so fearfully from the enemy.

In 1865, he was sent by the Commission to New York city, to act as superintendent of the Lincoln Home for disabled soldiers. He remained in this position for a year, until the Home was closed; and his kindness, discipline, and professional skill and experience were remarkably shown in combination. When the Home was closed, Dr. Marsh was still retained by the Commission for another winter, as physician to the families of indigent soldiers; in whose service, with characteristic faithfulness, he spared nothing of his well-nigh exhausted strength.

At this time, in the spring of 1867, he was chosen to the professorship of Applied Chemistry and Hygiene, in the newly organized Rutgers Female College. This department was one of peculiar interest to him, and he gave promise of the very highest ability and skill in its conduct. Various circumstances prevented his entering upon active duties during the first college year; but all the arrangements were in preparation for the opening of the department in September next, when death severed the connection.

Dr. Marsh was residing at Carson, Ohio, and while preparing to come on to the commencement of the college, was thrown from his carriage, and very seriously injured. For many years his health had been precarious, and his labors great. The shock that he now received proved too great for his strength, and he died on the 9th of June, 1868.

As a physician and surgeon, Dr. Marsh was exceedingly successful, and unusually devoted to the wants of the poor and needy. As a teacher, he was ever sympathizing and encouraging, and many have received from him aid and stimulus that have greatly influenced their lives. He was a member of the Presbyterian church; and leaves behind him, in every place where he has been known, "the blessed memory of the just."

Professor Amos Dean, LL. D.

An extended sketch of the late Professor Dean, well and favorably known as a teacher and author, is prefixed to the first volume of his "History of Civilization," now in course of publication, to which, in the absence of any formal notice communicated expressly for these pages, the reader is respectfully referred for a suitable memorial of his life and character. It will suffice to add, that Professor Dean was a member of the Convocation from its organization in 1863, by virtue of his professorship in the law department of the University of Albany, and as lecturer on history in the Albany Female Academy; that he was also, for the last year of his life, a member of the executive committee of the State Normal School; that his decease occurred January 26, 1868, after a very brief illness, at the age of sixty-five years; and that he was universally respected and beloved in all the relations of an eminently useful life.

EDUCATION IN POLITICS.

By JOHN NORTON POMEROY, LL. D.,

Griswold Professor of Political Science in the University of the City of New York.

I purpose to speak of Education in Politics.

The work done in the college, the academy, or the school, may be regarded as primarily a training for the high duties of American manhood, and the manhood-work but as the prolongation of the influences and tendencies of the academical experience. In fact, if this be not so; if there be a break between the life in the college and the life thereafter; if there be a wide and deep gulf to be bridged over by every graduate; if old habits of thought, old pursuits, old methods, must be thrown away, and the labor of accustoming one's self to an entirely new sphere of action must be undergone; then our institutions of higher education have miserably failed to accomplish the grand design for which they were founded; they have been hindrances instead of helps in the training and development of American citizens.

I desire to suggest some means by which the college and the people may be brought into nearer relations, be made more necessary to each other, and become more completely identified in interest.

Much has been written upon the final objects and the best methods of imparting and acquiring what is technically known as a higher or liberal education. We might well have supposed the subject exhausted; but within the past few years it has claimed and received even a greater amount of attention than ever before; it has passed beyond the domain of the professional teacher, and has entered that of the statesman and of the philosopher. Both in England and in America an element of ferment has been added to the common thought, and if we now perceive much disturbance, much turbidness, we may soon expect again to see the stream flow pure and clear. Mill, Lowe, Tyndall, and Huxley, in England, have taken up the work left unfinished by Arnold; America is not backward in the progress towards reform. We are plainly about to make a step in advance which will carry us beyond the

reach of ideas and methods that for centuries had been accepted as final.

In the contest which has heretofore been waged between the supporters of different theories, an endeavor has constantly been made to reach foundation principles. The advocates of the classics and of the pure mathematics, and also the advocates of the modern languages and of the physical sciences, have insisted upon discovering and defining what education is. On the one hand, etymology has been appealed to as furnishing a key to the whole controversy. The changes have often and triumphantly been rung upon the Latin verb *educere*. With many this word has solved the difficulty. Education, say they, is nothing, can be nothing, but the process of developing those powers and faculties of the mind which existed before in a dormant or imperfect state. It is that means by which the whole spiritual being, through a progressive system of well-arranged and scientifically-contrived exercise, acquires strength, vigor, persistency, energy, the ability to cope with and overcome the obstacles met in the active life of manhood. In this view the college is simply an intellectual gymnasium; all the operations there carried on are important only as means, and have no relevancy as ends; there is an ample supply of parallel and vaulting bars, rings, ropes, pulleys, and weights, but no place for forges, looms, or engines.

Opposed to this view we meet—and we constantly meet them in the American newspaper—the advocates of the pouring-in process. With them, education is only the imparting of information, or—to adopt their own language—the storing the mind with useful knowledge. Their aim is to communicate practical facts.

It is natural that theories so diametrically opposed as these, should sometimes be pushed by inconsiderate partizans to violent extremes: but the truth here, as in so many other instances, lies in the golden mean. It is the combination of these forces which produces the correct resultant. The great object of all systematic preparatory training must be the development of the intellectual and moral faculties by exercise, until the habit of the mind and soul is formed, the growth and stature attained. All systems which do not make this their central idea are unworthy even of consideration. The communication of useful and practical knowledge is also an object next in its degree of importance, if, indeed, it can be separated from the other. All plans and methods, therefore, which neglect this element, or place it in the back-

ground, are essentially defective, and must leave the student at the very threshold of active life unprepared for its contests and its triumphs.

The problem, therefore, which presents itself to all thoughtful minds, is to contrive a system of higher and technical education which shall combine the greatest amount of intellectual vigor, activity, energy, capacity for work, mental and moral muscularity, with the greatest amount of that knowledge which is practically useful in the affairs of life. In other words, the ideal education would give the student complete power, and would furnish him with perfect and exhaustless material. Towards the attainment of this ideal the philosophic minds of England and of America are struggling. They are agreed as to the great end to be reached; they only differ as to the proper adjustment of means.

I shall not enter into the controversy which has been waged so long and so bitterly between the partizans of various schools. The tendency of the present day is to exalt the natural sciences into the place of the classics, by ascribing to them all the peculiar advantages which have always been claimed for the linguistic system of training, together with other practical benefits which confessedly do not belong to the study of a dead language. Mill, Lowe, Huxley, Lyell, and Tyndall, in England, and Agassiz and others, in America, do not deny that education should be a process of development; they do not insist upon science simply because it communicates facts. They meet the partizan of Latin and Greek upon his own ground. They also demand a system which shall lead out the dormant faculties, which shall cultivate, expand, intensify the native powers. They claim that the study of nature, of God's physical creation, attains this end in the highest degree; that it fosters habits of observation, sharpens the perceptions, exercises the mind in combining and in reasoning from cause to effect; that thus it trains the whole man and fits him for the work of life. To all this they add, that the investigation of every natural science has an element of practical advantage which raises it into a position of evident superiority.

It is not my design to examine and discuss the correctness of these positions. But we know that they are vigorously maintained, and may become generally accepted. While the same grand objects of all higher education shall still be kept in view, the courses of study may be materially changed. In this probable readjustment, opportunities will be found to introduce topics

at present entirely ignored, or else passed by with a hasty and superficial attention.

Assuming these propositions as conceded, I urge that the careful, systematic, and extended study of Politics should be introduced into every higher school, college, and university for males or for females; that as compared with the languages, the mathematics, and the physical sciences, a prominence should be given to it proportioned to its excellence as an intellectual exercise, and to its vital importance in the private and public life of every American citizen. I claim that, as possessing an educational, a training, a developing capacity, the study of politics may be placed upon an equal footing with any of the branches to which the greater part of college work is generally devoted; and that as a means of imparting a practical and necessary knowledge, it has no superior, and probably no equal.

But I must at the outset define and describe what I mean by Politics. I certainly do not use a word made noble by Plato, in that prostituted sense which includes in it the mere party manipulations of the day, the art of controlling caucuses and conventions, of obtaining offices, of framing platforms which mean everything and nothing, of manufacturing a factitious public opinion. Instead of urging upon American young men and women the systematic study of these means and methods, I would rather express the devout hope that the time may soon come when they will all have been forgotten, when they will all have passed away even from the memory of American citizens as something so unutterably vile, that they had been consciously consigned to oblivion.

Politics is the Science of the State. It is necessarily separated into three departments or branches: The Science of Government, Civil Polity, or Constitutional Law;—the Science of Jurisprudence;—and the Science of Legislation, or Political Economy. This same threefold division may be otherwise expressed by saying that Politics, as a whole, consists in answers to the questions: What laws can be made? What laws have been made? and, What laws should be made?

Civil polity, or the answer to the question, What laws can be made? must again be separated into two departments. It includes, first, an examination of the general or abstract ideas and principles common to all human governments, and the limitations upon powers which must everywhere and under all circumstances exist;

and secondly, an examination of the ideas and principles which have been definitively adopted, and the limitations which have been expressly placed, by the sovereign people of any particular nation, upon their rulers or upon themselves.

In England the former of these sub-departments is by far the most important, because Parliament is the depositary of all law-making and administrative functions; the nation has placed no express limitations upon its rulers; the legislature is bound only by restrictions self-imposed. The grand principle of limitation and conservation in Great Britain is a moral and not a legal one; it rests in the sentiments and convictions of the people, shared with them, no doubt, by their rulers, and not in any constitutional safeguards which that people have voluntary built up for their own protection.

While I would by no means reject the study among us of general civil polity, yet for the American the second sub-department, or the examination of the ideas and principles of government which have been definitively adopted, and the limitations which have been expressly placed by the people upon their rulers or upon themselves, is clearly of paramount importance. We live under a peculiar constitution, but the nation has passed the point in its history when any other scheme could be possible. The general form of our government and all of its important elements are fixed. They were deliberately and finally chosen, after a discussion which surpassed in fullness and ability any other that had ever been presented to a people as an aid to their decision. Before the adoption of the constitution such a scrutiny was indispensable. An appeal was then made to the fundamental principles of government; the merits of various grants and limitations of power, and of various forms of organization, were carefully canvassed. But now this constitution is fixed; no one thinks of substituting in its place any new or different system; no one suggests any fundamental change. By it the nation must stand or fall. The educated citizen need not ask, therefore, with much solicitude, whether any particular clause is better or worse than some other which might have been made a part of the instrument; he needs to inquire, What is the meaning of this clause, and what power does it confer or limit, and how does it affect the relations which subsist between the government and the members of the body politic? All the aids which the canons of verbal interpretation, or history, or the analogies of other forms, or ethics, can

contribute to the determination of this all-important question, may be freely used; indeed, an answer is often impossible without a resort to some or all of them. There can be no doubt that the people are strongly convinced of the excellency of their organic law; that they will not yield their convictions to the demands of any mere theorizers; and that they will suffer no amendments except those which shall more completely carry out the ideas upon which the whole is based, which shall supply some omission, remove some anomaly, or correct some inadvertency.

To the educated American citizen, therefore, the study of civil polity which is of the highest importance, is that of the constitutions, National and State, of his own country. There they stand as facts, supporting the whole superstructure of the government; and there they will continue to stand until a revolution sweep them away, and sweep away with them every vestige of free institutions not degenerated into license, but ruled by law and based upon the conscious intelligence and duty of the people.

The motives which should urge the citizen to the careful study of this organic law are of the highest and most imperative character. Second only to his duty to God, stands that to his country; the welfare of the body politic has a stronger claim upon him than even that of family or of self. But, by the organization of our government the welfare of the body politic is committed directly to the citizen. Even if not an elector, he may become one; and at all events he may exert a personal influence which goes to make up a part of that public opinion which carries along with it electors and elected. Weighty as is the obligation resting upon all citizens, it assumes a deeper and more imperative nature as it affects the educated classes, and especially the young men and young women who are preparing for the duties of citizenship by the culture received from the college, the academy, the school. Their very knowledge and discipline should fit them to give tone and character to public opinion; to lead and not to be driven in all political movements. Our higher institutions of learning will have miserably failed in attaining the most important object for which they were designed, if they do not make young men and women wiser, truer, stronger American citizens. A systematic and extended course of instruction in the constitutional law of the United States, should, therefore, form a large part of the work done in every college and higher school. That this study has not been and is not thus universal, is glaringly inconsistent

with the ideas upon which our government is based; is antagonistic to those principles of popular education which have come to be regarded as axiomatic; and has been at least the partial cause of disasters which cannot be measured, of evils which well nigh destroyed the nation itself.

Politics includes, in the second place, the science of jurisprudence, or the examination of those laws which have been made. It is not demanded, nor is it even hoped, that the instruction of the college or of the university should aim at making every graduate a professional lawyer. But the law is the highest, best, plainest exponent of the civilization of a people. In it are summed up, and, as it were, incarnated, the sentiments of justice, of right and wrong, of material economy, of all that goes to make a nation wise, good, great, and prosperous. The law is the outcome of the aggregate thought of the people concerning those matters which in the highest degree affect their social welfare. Improvement in it is the surest note of improvement in society. While, therefore, the student need not be made a practical lawyer, he should, if his preliminary training is to prepare him in any full measure for the life of active citizenship, be made acquainted with the grand principles and with the most important subordinate rules which compose the outline of our municipal jurisprudence.

The fact that most male citizens of a suitable age have a direct voice in the selection of legislators, and that *every* citizen may wield a potent influence in determining this selection, is a weighty consideration in favor of the general diffusion of a knowledge of the law as it now exists. But another element in our social and political organization adds immeasurably to the strength of the argument. Not only is the power of originating laws referable to the general body of the citizens meeting in their electoral capacities, and through them to their delegates composing the National and State legislatures; not only does the existence of any and all forms and systems of jurisprudence rest solely and finally in the collective will of the nation, but the people have the other and equally important function of interposing in the actual administration of justice. Right at the very point where the law descends from its severe height of abstract right and touches the individual, bringing its sanction to bear upon him, and making itself felt as a restraining or as an assisting power, there the people, not the magistrate, not the official, step in and form the channels by which the theoretical code becomes practically efficient upon the

lives, liberty, and property of men. Under our judicial and administrative machinery, it is not entirely the judge who is the organ of communication between the majesty of the supreme will and the individual suitor; it is even more the jury with whom the power rests of rendering the jurisprudence effective, or of measurably destroying its character and usefulness. The method of jury trial is certainly that which demands the highest culture among the citizens in order to realize its ideal benefits; and to preserve the institution in its integrity, to make it a conserving and not a destructive element, requires not only a diffusion of general knowledge among the citizens, but an acquaintance with the outlines of legal science by those educated classes who should give tone and character to the thoughts and opinions of the whole people.

Politics includes, in the third place, the science of legislation, or an answer to the question, What laws ought to be made? It is plain that this department—or Political Economy, in its widest sense—is the outgrowth and corollary of the other two. What can be done, and what has been done, must always be inquiries prefatory to the question, What shall be done? The time is fast approaching—nay, we have now entered upon it—when the life of the nation will depend upon the character of the economic laws which shall be adopted. With a debt, National and State, of three thousand millions of dollars resting upon us, all bearing a high rate of interest; with a vast irredeemable paper currency, much larger than the business of the country, properly conducted, demands; with the mercantile connections between ourselves and other nations, if not broken, certainly maintained at our disadvantage, because we have no common medium of exchange; it is evident that for a generation to come the questions of taxation, of finance, of political economy in its highest and broadest extent, will become the all-absorbing subjects which shall engage the public attention; subjects which will demand the most profound and anxious study from that educated class which ought to give direction to popular opinion. It will not be, how much Latin and Greek do we know, how much mathematics and physical science have we investigated; but how shall we, as a nation, live without dishonor, disgrace, and repudiation? how shall we promote wealth, which is the result and gauge of labor, and thus pay off those debts which were incurred during a life-and-death struggle for national existence? At a time when men of all par-

ties and of wide influence are urging upon the American people that the indebtedness of the United States should be discharged by mere paper promises to pay, which have only a factitious value, and no purchasing power whatever beyond the limits of our own territory; at a time when it seems to be forgotten by the law-makers, and to be fast passing away from the memory of the people, that the only criterion of value is the cost of reproduction; and when the very first principles of economic science are neglected in framing the financial legislation,—it would seem that the thorough, careful and extended investigation of these subjects was of the highest importance to the American student; it would seem that, notwithstanding the sneers of the so-called practical men, and of the newspapers, the colleges could confer no greater boon upon the country than by giving a proportionate prominence to instruction in political economy.

A special consideration, which we must not ignore, however galling it may be to our national pride, adds an overwhelming force to the argument. Public prosperity can only be maintained by a most scrupulous adherence to public good faith. It should never be forgotten that when an independent and sovereign nation enters into an obligation, either with particular individuals of its own citizens or with foreigners, this obligation is moral only, and not legal. It cannot be enforced on behalf of the creditor by means of any compulsory judicial or legislative process. The debtor nation always has the complete physical power to neglect or even openly refuse to perform its stipulated duties. The only possible redress in such a case is revolution, if the injured persons are citizens, and war, if they are foreigners. The keeping of public good faith is therefore always a voluntary act, and the temptation is ever present to disregard this self-imposed obligation. Now, it is more difficult to keep the public good faith in a Republic than in any other form of government, and because more difficult, the least appearance or suggestion of swerving from perfect uprightness inflicts a more immediate and destructive injury upon its credit and prosperity. This is a fact which we may deplore, but which we cannot deny. When the great mass of the people are not only the ultimate tax-payers, but also the final law-makers; when burdened down by the load of public indebtedness which consumes the profits of their industry, they have it within their power, by the exercise of a political function resting in themselves, to throw off this weight; it is not strange the national

debt of a Republic should be regarded as more insecure, and therefore as demanding a higher rate of interest than the national debt of an established monarchy. Will any thoughtful person deny that a people who are at once the tax-payers and the law-makers, are peculiarly exposed to influences which do not and cannot so powerfully affect an aristocratic class? Among no people of the world, therefore, is a thorough knowledge of the eternal principles which lie at the basis of political and economic science, so indispensable as among the American people. It is necessary by reason of our whole social and governmental organization; it is doubly necessary by reason of the circumstances of unexampled difficulty in which we are now placed.

I plead, therefore, for the systematic study of Politics,—of Constitutional Law, of the outlines of Positive Jurisprudence, and of Economic Legislation. I urge that these departments of practical knowledge be put upon an equal footing with the dead languages, the pure mathematics, and the physical sciences. I maintain that they will produce in a high degree the strengthening and developing effect for which we value the educational training of the college, the academy, and the school. Politics is the science of the State. It investigates that most exalted of all God's creatures—Man—and man in the most exalted of all his earthly relations—those to society. It concerns itself, not with the intellectual and physical constitution of the individual, but with the social constitution of men segregated into God-appointed bodies politic, or nations. It regards mankind in that capacity by which they approach the nearest to their divine author—that of law-makers. No nobler subject within our finite comprehension could be presented to the mind for its contemplation. It calls into action all the intellectual faculties, and applies them to an object of the most practical importance. Politics is a science, and its study is a scientific study. All education at the present day demands something more than the acquisition of isolated facts; it insists upon arrangement, classification, the detection of relations more or less general, and of laws more or less comprehensive which govern these relations and control these facts. The powers of observation are exercised in the discovery of facts, of analysis and combination in ascertaining relations and laws. All modern courses of study have been rearranged in accordance with these principles. The teacher of language has borrowed the methods of the instructor in physics, and it is now-a-days the laws of speech

and comparative philology which are taught, rather than words. Politics is equally, with language and physics, a science; may and should be taught as a science; may and should train and enlarge the spiritual nature of the student. God created inanimate matter and placed it under the domain of law from which it cannot escape. God created individual men and placed each under the domain of law, but conferred upon him a moral element—the power to choose between obedience and disobedience. If His own Word is to be believed; if the teachings of history are to be respected, God created society and the State as truly and as effectually as he did the aggregate of human beings. The day is passed when it can be asserted that, while all inanimate creation is governed by law, and while each particular man is surrounded by a network of commands and prohibitions from which he cannot escape, the collective life of man, the organization of the human race into those political societies without which it could not exist, has been left unregulated, ungoverned, the sport of chance and accident. A God-given law reigns in the history of States and Nations even more truly than in the ongoings of nature; to apprehend that law may well call for the deepest research, the profoundest abstraction, the most earnest investigation, the most exalted reason. Shall we be told that the study of chemistry involves the pursuit of recondite relations, and that the study of government involves only an acquaintance with isolated and unconnected facts? Shall we believe that in the transmission of language from race to race, the change in the use of one letter for another constantly follows an invariable law, and that in the progress of civilization the transmission and change of social institutions obey no rule? Shall we find in God's inferior creation, all order, method, adjustment; but none in his supreme earthly creation,—the State? I claim, therefore, that if it is a high intellectual discipline to examine the facts of language, to trace the life of words, to fix the relations which subsist between different modes of expression; if it is a high intellectual discipline to ascertain the facts of the material universe, and thence to compare, to combine, and finally to arrive at a grand law like that of the conservation and correlation of forces; then in even a higher sense it is an educational exercise to follow mankind in their social organizations, through their successive stages of development, their inheritance and moulding of institutions, the incarnation of their ideas of material economy in positive legislation, until

sometime we may be able to discover that final expression of all human thought and labor—the Perfect Law of Liberty.

This is preëminently the age of revolution; not indeed of those bloody outbreaks which attended the close of the last century, and buried feudalism under the ruins of society as then organized. The revolutions which distinguish our epoch are quiet and sometimes unnoticed, but none the less thorough and complete; they are revolutions of ideas, of institutions, of opinions, and of methods.

While the tendency shows itself in every department of thought and activity; while it exhibits its effects in religion, in philosophy, in literature, and in social life; it is even more emphatically marked in the state and in politics. In Europe this condition of change is manifest to a wonderful degree; the claims of popular sovereignty and government are there asserting themselves with an earnestness not to be mistaken; not indeed by force and violence but through the constitutional and customary forms of legislation. Austria has arisen from her condition of lethargy, and has thrown off the yoke of mere autocratic and hierarchical dominion. Education released from legal priestly control, marriage a civil institution and not entirely a church sacrament, freedom of religious beliefs and practices secured to all, local governments conceded and established,—these are all plain indications of that deep and strong current of thought and conviction which is moving among the European nationalities. If we pass to Great Britain we may see the same underlying cause working out yet surer results. The recent reform bill is a long step in advance; it will certainly be soon followed by another leading up to the point of general suffrage. All the deepest thought of England is now engaged upon one side of this question; and the discussion is marked by features which were never before found in connection with English legislation. Hitherto, policy not principle has constantly dictated the choice of measures, even the adoption of those reforms which have occupied so much of the time and attention of Parliament during the past thirty-five years. Now eternal and fundamental truths, broad generalizations of right and duty are insisted upon as the motive power which is to impel the nation in its onward career.

The work of disestablishing the church, or divorcing it from its union with the state, and of placing it in a position of independence as a voluntary society, has commenced, with every assurance

of speedy success. Contemplate the magnitude of these changes. Universal suffrage will remove the House of Commons, and through it, the Parliament, from the exclusive control of the aristocratic, and of the wealthy commercial and trading middle classes, and will place it in the hands of the nation, as the ready instrument of their sovereign will. Great Britain will become in fact—and we may even expect in name—a Republic.

Certain tendencies and changes in the public life of our own country, add a special emphasis to the views which I am presenting. These changes have not been so much in institutions and measures as in opinions; but there they have been rapid and radical. When the present constitution was adopted and the government under it was set up, ideas directly inherited from our English ancestors were controlling in all public affairs. Above all, the electoral capacity, the power to take a part in the choice of rulers by voting, was universally regarded as a privilege, a high personal trust conferred by society upon certain individuals, to be exercised by them not for their own benefit alone, but for the good and on behalf of the whole body politic. Our belief in the correctness of this theory has been gradually growing feeble during the whole course of our national history; until it is now claimed, and the claim is maintained and urged with great vehemence by representative men of all classes, that the vote is not a privilege, but that it is an essential and inalienable manhood right, of the same personal and sacred character as the right to life, liberty, and property, only to be forfeited by criminal acts of violence or other wrongs against society, and therefore that all laws and institutions which withhold this right from any class of citizens are intrinsically unjust and tyrannical, opposed to the very conception of a republican form of government. I do not now discuss the correctness of these modern views. I only assert that as a fact they are rapidly making their way in the convictions of the American people, and that beyond a doubt they will soon become universally accepted. When this result is reached, the logical consequences will immediately follow; for the Americans are logical; they easily and without hesitation proceed to the final conclusions from the premises they adopt. Universal manhood suffrage will be the first of these practical measures. Recent legislation points unmistakably to this end. Universal womanhood suffrage will be the other necessary consequence, unless a period of strong reaction sets in. Once assume that the vote is an intrinsic and inalienable

right, and no consideration can be advanced worthy the name of argument why it should be restricted to men, unless we are willing to uphold the absurdity that the right over life, liberty, and property does not essentially belong to woman, but is conferred upon her as a privilege.

In addition to this movement there are clear and unmistakable indications of a tendency yet more radical, yet more antagonistic to all of our preconceived notions. Hitherto it had been assumed that the elector exhausted his power and authority by the very act of voting; that he thereby imparted to his representative a free and full discretion to use his own individual judgment, a complete liberty to make choice of such measures as seemed to him just and proper. This representative was assumed to stand for the time in the place of the people who could only resume their primary power at a succeeding election. This theory was supposed to be the very essence of a representative and republican form of government, and to distinguish it from a pure democracy. Our own institutions were certainly formed in strict accordance with it, and the legislative and administrative departments, as well as the judiciary, were placed in a condition of independence; but lest the servants should forget the wishes and interests of their masters—the people—elections were made as frequent as a due regard for order and stability would permit.

But it cannot be denied that this idea of representative independence is fast losing its authority and influence among us. The Legislator, the Congressman, the President, are fast coming to be regarded as passive instruments or machines to register the decrees of an unorganized but most potent public opinion. A recent event affords a striking illustration of the tendency I am describing, and I refer to it without hesitation. During the late impeachment trial of the President, a strong popular pressure was brought to bear upon the Senate, through the newspapers, the political conventions, and the assemblies of the people. Men who justly occupy a high position, and have long taken a large part in the management of public affairs, labored with great earnestness to show that the impeachment was not a judicial trial, but was an ordinary legislative proceeding, and that, *therefore*, individual Senators could not rely upon their own discretion, judgment, and convictions of right and duty, but were directly responsible to the people, and must reflect, and be guided by, their opinions, wishes, and demands. Every legislator *is* responsible to the people, and

must be prepared to meet that responsibility. But if he has not a personal power to judge for himself, and to act in obedience with that judgment, then we have failed to learn the very alphabet of our constitution; we have contrived a complicated scheme of administration, full of checks and counterpoises, but all useless and cumbersome.

No thoughtful man can deny that the tendencies I have here mentioned are dangerous. They may be true as facts; they may be irresistible; all direct opposition may only serve to inflame and hasten them: but they are none the less dangerous; they none the less demand the application of some conserving element, which, while it joins with the onward progress, and adapts itself to the inevitable movement, may guide, direct, and mould it. This great conservator can only be universal popular education; not alone a skill in the simplest processes of reading and writing; but an education in the principles of our government; in the fundamental ideas of civil liberty; in the grand truths which lie at the basis of all economic legislation. The moment the people begin to feel their own unlimited power, the more completely will they assume all control, and draw all administration into their own hands. Hereditary class rule is fast passing away in England; social class rule has nearly disappeared in America. We may soon become a democracy in reality amidst all the machinery of a representative government; and an ignorant democracy is the most terrible of tyrannies. If there are to be no qualifications for the voter, the voter should be instructed as to the nature of the capacity with which he is clothed. If an irresponsible public opinion is to wield directly all the forces of the State, that public opinion must itself be enlightened. The safety lies in a wider diffusion of true political knowledge; in a more familiar acquaintance with political history; in a more profound study of political science. Here is a field which the academy, the college, the university should immediately occupy; it should not be left to the surface and exhaustive tillage of the partizan newspaper; it needs the deep subsoil cultivation of the philosophic thinker. Thousands of young men and women go forth each year from our American institutions of learning. They should form the solid phalanx of educated minds that can withstand all the desperate assaults of demagogues, and all the destructive attacks of ignorance. They should be the conserving element that shall at once keep the nation to its hold upon the past, and lead it to a perfect future.

ANNALS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

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It is proposed to present, in this article, a collection of the official acts and historical records relating to public education within this State during the Dutch colonial period, extending from 1626 to 1664, with such incidental notices of private schools and teachers as occur in the course of investigation on the principal branch of the subject. If hereafter practicable, this research will be continued, under the above general title, to a date subsequent to the organization of the present State government.

Much of the material of these annals exists only in the State archives in manuscript form; other printed fragments are widely scattered, and are not readily accessible in the absence of any catalogue or digest of authorities referring to this subject.

The results of the few attempts hitherto made in any portion of this field have been carefully sought and freely used, with due acknowledgment. Dunshee's "History of the School of the Reformed Dutch Church in New York" has been of greater service than any other single collection in print relating to the colonial period. That school having been the first, and for some time the only public one within the colony, its history is almost co-extensive with that of public education for a certain period. The pre-eminence of this little work in its special field, is attested by the fact that it is almost the sole authority quoted, for the colonial period, in Boese's "History of Education in the city of New York." Valentine's Manual of the Corporation of New York, for 1863, contains a sketch of "Schools and schoolmasters in the time of the Dutch," which includes some items not mentioned by other authors. Occasional allusions to the subject of education occur in O'Callaghan's History of New Netherland, Brodhead's History of New York, and other works of like general character. A "Special report on the present state of education in the United States and other countries," by the late Superintendent of Public Instruction of this State, devotes two pages to a cursory sketch of its educational history during the colonial era.

The principal official source of information for the earlier periods, is the "New York Historical Manuscripts," Dutch and English, in the office of the Secretary of State, of which there are about one hundred folio volumes. The Dutch manuscripts were translated some fifty years since, under State authority, by Francis Adrian Van der Kemp, and are now being re-translated by the eminent archivist, Dr. O'Callaghan, under the title of "Records of New Netherland." Of Van der Kemp's translation there are twenty-four volumes, which are known among antiquarians as the "Albany Records." We regret that most of the passages which we have occasion to quote, not having been reached by the new translator, must exhibit the imperfections of style which characterize the Albany Records. Dr. O'Callaghan has also prepared a full calendar and index of the original manuscripts, a small edition of which has been published. By the aid of this invaluable work, any special subject of colonial history may be readily investigated. The Documentary and Colonial Histories of the State—the former in four, and the latter in eleven quarto volumes, large editions of which have been published—contain copies of some of these manuscripts, including a few referring to educational affairs, especially among the Indians. The corporation archives of New York city contain a collection known as the "New Amsterdam Records," an unpublished translation of which, in seven volumes, was made some years since by Dr. O'Callaghan. These records contain a few items in regard to the schools of that city during the period of the Dutch administration. The manuscript "Correspondence of the Classis of Amsterdam," procured in Holland, some years since, by Mr. Brodhead, to which occasional reference is made by historians, throws additional light upon this special subject.

Among other sources of information may be mentioned the journals of the Legislative Council and Assembly, from 1691 to 1775, and of the Senate and Assembly, beginning in 1777; the colonial laws, most of which are found in the extant compilations, though a number of obsolete ones of special historical interest occur only in the original manuscript form in the office of the Secretary of State; the records in the office of the Regents of the University, beginning in 1784; the manuscript collections in the State Library; miscellaneous works of research including local histories and annals, prominent among which is Munsell's "Annals of Albany;"

and, lastly, old newspapers. Specific references to these sources of information will be made in connection with each quotation, it being an important part of the present design to verify every statement, and to facilitate further investigation, in the hope that the materials for a full history of education in the State may finally be secured.

It is proposed to adopt, as far as practicable, the precise language of the authorities cited, with only such editorial statements as may be needed for the purpose of continuous narrative and the explanation of obscure passages. If these efforts, continued as they may be from year to year, shall contribute to a better understanding of the origin and growth of the present system of education in the Empire State, the chief design of this undertaking will be accomplished.

FIRST PERIOD.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE COLONY OF NEW NETHERLAND.
1626-1664.

The following extracts illustrate the customs and policy of the Hollanders in regard to education prior to and in connection with the settlement of New Netherland:

The Dutch were eminently a charitable, well-educated and moral people. . . . Neither the perils of war, nor the busy pursuit of gain, nor the excitement of political strife, ever caused them to neglect the duty of educating their offspring to enjoy that freedom for which their fathers had fought. Schools were everywhere provided, at the public expense, with good schoolmasters, to instruct the children of all classes in the usual branches of education; and the consistories of the churches took zealous care to have their youth thoroughly taught the catechism and the articles of religion.¹

It was the custom, after the Reformation in Holland, to send out with emigrants going to any of its colonies, however few in number, a well-qualified schoolmaster, who was a member of the church, and accredited, by his competence and piety, to take charge of the instruction of children and youth. During the absence or want of a minister, he was bound to conduct public worship, by reading a sermon, offering prayers, etc., on the Sabbath, and on other occasions. With the earliest agricultural settlement of Manhattan Island and its vicinity, such a schoolmaster and *voorlezer* [clerk or reader] was sent out, and from the earliest period the school has continued to this day.²

Schools have always been in existence in New York since its settlement by the Dutch. The founders of the colony brought with them from Holland the institutions of their native land; its industry, its catholicity of spirit, its care for the religious and educational welfare of the people.³

"No other religion was to be publicly tolerated or allowed in New Netherland, save that then taught and exercised by authority in the Reformed Church of the United Provinces," for the inculcation of which the [West India] Company promised to support and maintain good and fit preachers, schoolmasters and comforters of the sick.⁴

No principle was more deeply engraved on the heart of the Hollander than that "the church and the school must be maintained."⁵

The establishment of schools, and the appointment of schoolmasters, rested conjointly with the [West India] Company and the Classis of Amsterdam; and it is from this circumstance that much relating to the early history of the school under consideration has been preserved.⁶

¹ Brodhead's History of New York, pp. 461-463.

² Rev. Thomas De Witt, D. D., in his Introduction to Dunshee's History of the School of the Reformed Protestant Dutch Church in the City of New York, pp. 7, 8.

³ Supt. Rice's Special Report on the condition of Education, p. 77.

⁴ O'Callaghan's History of New Netherland, i, 220.

⁵ Strong's History of Flatbush, p. 108. ⁶ Dunshee, p. 25.

When a school is spoken of under the Dutch administration, special reference is invariably made to the official public school, supported by the authorities, and in connection with the established [Reformed Dutch] Church, the schoolmasters whereof were appointed by the West India Company. From the first organization of the school, till the year 1808, when a special board of trustees was appointed, the supervision and management of the school was in the hands of the deacons. . . . No private school teachers . . . could follow their calling without a license from the civil and ecclesiastical authorities.¹

1626. When a colonial government was organized, 1626, by Kieft,² the first Director General, we find the place of a clergyman supplied, to a certain extent, by Sebastian Jans Crol and Jan Huyck, two "Krank-besoekers," "Ziekentroosters," or "Comforters of the Sick." . . . Exigency of circumstances, in a new settlement, sometimes demanded that the exercise of the functions pertaining to the offices of the minister, the schoolmaster, and the Krank-besoeker, devolved upon the same individual: so that we might with propriety be justified in claiming the introduction of public education as early as 1626; but as the term schoolmaster is not expressly applied to either of the Krank-besoekers, we will waive the position.³

The earliest official act relating to public education in New Netherland is contained in the so-called

Freedoms and Exemptions,

Granted by the West India Company to all Patroons, Masters, or Private Persons who will plant colonies in New Netherland, 7 June, 1629.

XXVII. The Patroons and colonists shall in particular, and in the speediest manner, endeavor to find out ways and means whereby they may supply a minister and schoolmaster, that thus the service of God and zeal for religion may not grow cool and be neglected among them, and they shall, for the first, procure a comforter of the sick there.⁴

This decree was reënacted in 1630 in the

New Project of Freedoms and Exemptions

28. The Patroons shall also particularly exert themselves to find speedy means to maintain a clergyman and schoolmaster, in order that Divine service and zeal for religion may be planted in that country; and send, at first, a comforter for the sick thither.⁵

The city of Amsterdam some years later undertook to provide schoolhouses for new settlements, and provisionally to support schoolmasters, as appears from the following:

¹ Dunshee, p. 83.

² This should have been *Minuit*.

³ Dunshee, pp. 27, 28.

⁴ N. Y. Col. Doc. ii, 557. O'Callaghan's *Laws of New Netherland*, p. 9.

⁵ N. Y. Col. Doc. i, 99.

Draft of Conditions offered by the city of Amsterdam to Emigrants to New Netherland. No date: probably 1656.

Remarks of Directors of West India Company.

4.

To the end that the said colonists may gain their *Fiat*. [Let it be done.] livelihood there safely, honestly and prosperously, the city aforesaid doth beforehand guarantee as follows :

* * * *

7.

Said city shall cause to be erected about the market or in a more convenient place, a public building suitable for Divine service : *item*, also a house for a school, which can likewise be occupied by the person who will hereafter be sexton, psalm-setter and schoolmaster ; the city shall, besides, have a house built for the Minister.

* * * *

8.

The city aforesaid shall provisionally provide and *Fiat*. pay the salary of a Minister and schoolmaster, unless their High Mightinesses or the Company think otherwise.¹

* * * *

Among the officials of that early period, we are especially interested in the schoolmasters, memorials of some of whom have been preserved.

From all that has been discovered, the first schoolmaster in New Amsterdam was Adam Roelantsen.² . . . He was a resident of this city as early at least as the year 1633, as appears from an affidavit made by him in 1638, setting forth certain misconduct which he observed in one Greetje Reiners, in the year 1633, at a place called the Old Magazine.³

Mr. Valentine says, he "probably had pursued this calling during all the time of his residence," *i. e.*, from 1633 to 1638, at which latter date he removed to Renselaerswick. Mr. Dunshee speaks with more confidence upon this point, but fails to cite any additional authority; nor are we able to find Roelantsen's name in the list of officials to which he refers in the following paragraph:

1633. In the enumeration of the [West India] Company's officials . . . Everardus Bogardus is mentioned as officiating as minister at Fort Amsterdam, and Adam Roelansden as the *first* schoolmaster.

¹ N. Y. Col. Doc. i, 619, 620. See, also, pp. 631, 636, 637, and O'Callaghan's Laws of New Netherland, pp. 239, 240.

² More properly spelled *Roelantsen*.

³ Valentine's Corporation Manual, 1863, p. 559. Albany Records, i, 52.

Here, then, in accordance with the custom of the age, the usage of the home government, and by charter stipulations, we have the introduction of the first schoolmaster in Manhattan; . . . and although it is probable that at times the school was kept somewhat irregularly, owing to the unsettled state of affairs arising from Indian depredations and the hostile attitude and aggressions of the colonists in New England, yet the records furnish direct and indisputable evidence of the efforts made for its continuance and support.¹

Further particulars in regard to the life and character of Roelantsen, some of which, we regret to say, are quite discreditable to "the first schoolmaster," are reserved for separate biographical notices of schoolmasters, which it is proposed to append to this article. It may, however, be due to Roelantsen to add, that even Domine Bogardus was accused of immorality and excess, and that the standard of public virtue was not remarkably high at that time. Dr. O'Callaghan says:

The state of morals in New Amsterdam was, at this period [1638], by no means healthy, owing as well to the description of persons which trade brought thither, as to the absence, in a great part, of an agricultural population.²

Though "the mass of the people resident at the Manhattans were unable or ill qualified either to read or write,"³ the value of education seems to have been highly appreciated; for we find that as early as 1642, it was customary, in marriage contracts, whenever the bride was a widow having children, for the parties to "promise to bring up the children decently, according to their ability, to provide them with necessary clothing and food, to keep them at school, to let them learn reading, writing, and a good trade;" to which was sometimes added, "as honest parents ought and are bound to do, and as they can answer before God and men."⁴

The first direct mention of a public tax for the support of schools occurs in the

Proposed Articles for the Colonization and Trade of New Netherland. 1638.

8. Each householder and inhabitant shall bear such tax and public charge as shall hereafter be considered proper for the maintenance of clergymen, comforters for the sick, schoolmasters, and such like necessary officers; and the Director and Council there shall be written to touching the form hereof, in order, on receiving further information hereupon, it be rendered the least onerous and vexatious.⁵

¹ Dunshee, pp. 28, 29. Alb. Rec. i, 52.

² O'Call. N. N. i, 185.

³ N. Y. Hist. MSS. ii, 35, 51; iii, 70; iv, 20. O'Callaghan's Ms. Records of N. N. ii, 37, 48, 102, 127.

⁴ O'Call. N. N. i, 187.

⁵ N. Y. Col. Doc. i, 112.

That a school was in contemplation in Beaverwyck (Albany), as early as 1643, appears by the following extract from a letter written by Arendt Van Curler to the Patroon of Rensselaerwyck, dated June 16, 1643:

As for the church, it is not yet contracted for, nor even begun. . . . That which I intend to build this summer in the pine grove, will be 34 feet long by 19 feet wide. It will be large enough for the first three or four years to preach in, and can afterwards always serve for the residence of the sexton, or for a school.¹

The salaries proposed to be paid in those early times are exhibited in the following

*Report of the Board of Accounts in New Netherland: 1644.*²

Estimate of the Expenses which the [West India] Company would have to bear in New Netherland for the following persons to be rationed at their own expense:

1 director, whose monthly salary should be fl. 250, to board himself, is yearly.....	fl. 3,000
* * * * *	*
1 clergyman, a fl. 120 per month	1,440
1 schoolmaster, precentor and sexton, a fl. 30	360

A similar estimate, in 1661, is more liberal to the schoolmaster, as compared with the director, though both are reduced to the smallest possible amount:

One director, on a salary of 100 guilders per month, and board-wages a year, 300 guilders.

* * * * *
One comforter of the sick, to act also as schoolmaster, 18 guilders per month, and board-wages a year, 80 guilders.³ [A florin and guilder were each equivalent to about 40 cents U. S. currency.]

The first effort to build a schoolhouse occurred, according to Mr. Dunshee, as early as 1642, although the documentary evidence quoted by him does not clearly establish the date. He says:

In 1642, the church on Broad street having become somewhat dilapidated and reproachful in appearance, an effort was made to procure a new one, and at the same time was commenced the laudable undertaking of building a schoolhouse with suitable accommodations (p. 30).

Mr. Dunshee proceeds to quote from the Remonstrance of New Netherland, made in 1649, which states that "the bowl has been going round a long time for the purpose of collecting money for erecting a schoolhouse;" but this does not intimate that the

¹ O'Call. N. N. i, 459. [From the Rensselaerswyck MSS.]

² N. Y. Col. Doc. i, 155.

³ N. Y. Col. Doc. ii, 169.

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“long time” began in 1642. He also refers to Dr. O’Callaghan’s account of the building of the church in 1642 (Hist. of N. N., i, 260), which, however, contains no allusion to a schoolhouse **at** that time. The following statement of the condition of education in 1646, contains the only allusion made by the learned Doctor, to a schoolhouse of earlier date, his sole authority being, as he informs us, the “Remonstrance of New Netherland,” to which reference will hereafter be made:

Though a college had been founded in Massachusetts some nine years before, the authorities of New Netherland made little or no effort, up to this time, to establish a common or primary school in any part of this country. Some subscriptions had been entered into by the commonalty, for the purpose of erecting a schoolhouse in New Amsterdam, but these funds were also misappropriated, and this laudable undertaking failed in consequence.¹

This unfortunate condition of education, in common with other public interests, seems to have resulted partly from the feebleness and poverty of the colony, and partly from the dissensions which prevailed during Director Kieft’s administration.

“Where the shepherd errs the sheep go astray.” Drunkenness and broils were of frequent occurrence. The people were “without discipline, and approaching to a savage state.” “A fourth part of the city of New Amsterdam consisted of grog-shop and houses, where nothing is to be got but tobacco and beer.” Religion and education felt the baneful effects of these evil influences. . . . Such was the state of disorganization into which the public affairs had fallen.²

In 1647, Director Kieft was superseded by Petrus Stuyvesant, whose commission was dated at the Hague, July 28, 1646, and who entered upon his duties May 27, 1647. The new Director General undertook to reform the prevalent abuses, and for this purpose drew up certain “propositions to the members in council assembled,” dated November 11, 1647. The fifth of these propositions, and the action of the Council thereon, are recorded in parallel columns, according to the usage of the times, as follows:

5thly. Whereas, by want of proper place, no school has been kept in three months, by which the youth is spoiled, so is proposed, where a convenient place may be adapted to keep the youth from the street and under a strict subordination.³

By the Council is decreed the same as on the 4th article above. [Viz: Decreed by the Council, as this point particularly interests the commonalty, to propose it to the nine Tribunes, so that the best means may be employed, at the smallest expenses of the commonalty.]

¹ O’Call. N. N. i, 396.

² O’Call. N. N. i, 395, 396.

³ Alb. Rec. vii, 106.

The statement that for "want of a proper place, no school had been held in three months," must have reference to the public school in connection with the church; for one Jan Stevensen was actually teaching at the time, and had been so doing for five years.¹

It thus appears that private schools had already been established in New Amsterdam, although, as before stated, no person could teach without a license from the civil and ecclesiastical authorities.

The "Nine Tribunes," commonly called the "Nine Men," were chosen by the Director General and Council from double that number of persons selected by the people, to give their advice when called on, and to assist in promoting the welfare of the commonalty, as well as that of the country.² In accordance with the above recommendation of the Council, the Director communicated his views to the Nine Men in the following terms:

To the nine elected Tribunes, representing the Commonalty of Manhattans, Breukelen, Amerfoort and Pavonia:

Dear Friends: A sudden and unhappy accident, and its following pains prevent my assisting at your meeting and making proposals in person as I intended, and concluding what means are the most advisable to adopt for the common weal and can be employed with the least grievance to our dear subjects.

* * * * *

3dly. Not less necessary than the former article is the building of a new school and dwelling house for the schoolmaster, for the benefit of the commonalty and the education of the youth. We are inclined to bear personally and in behalf of the Company a reasonable proportion, and continue to do so in the future, and promote this glorious work. Meanwhile it is required to make some previous arrangement to provide a convenient place during next winter, either in one of the outhouses belonging to the Attorney General's Department, to which I should give the preference, or any other convenient place, as may be approved by the church wardens.

* * * * *

Done in haste, in our bedroom, on the 14 Nov. 1647. (Signed) Yours and the commonalty's well willing,
P. STUYVESANT.³

We are unable to find any evidence that the Nine Men responded favorably to this proposition, and it appears from subsequent events that nothing was done by them.

In 1649, in consequence of disagreement between the Director and the Nine Men, the latter, under the leadership of Adriaen Van der Donck, prepared a memorial to the States-General of Holland, to which was annexed the so-called "Vertoogh" or

¹ Dunshee, p. 38.

² O'Call. N. N. ii, 86, 87.

³ Alb. Rec. vii, 107, 108.

“Remonstrance of New Netherland,” setting forth, among other things, “the reasons and cause of the great decay of New Netherland,” and “in what manner New Netherland should be relieved.” Among the “reasons” enumerated, the following statement occurs:

The plate has been a long time passed around for a common school which has been built with words, for, as yet, the first stone is not laid; some materials have only been provided. However, the money given for the purpose hath all disappeared and is mostly spent, so that it falls somewhat short; and nothing permanent has as yet been effected for this purpose.¹

Under the head, “In what manner New Netherland should be relieved,” we find the following:

* * * * *

It is doubtful but Divine worship must be entirely intermitted in consequence of the clergyman’s departure, and the Company’s inability. There ought to be also a public school provided with at least two good teachers, so that the youth, in so wild a country, where there are so many dissolute people, may, first of all, be well instructed and indoctrinated not only in reading and writing, but also in the knowledge and fear of the Lord. Now, the school is kept very irregularly, by this one or that, according to his fancy, as long as he thinks proper. There ought to be, likewise, asylums for aged men, for orphans, and similar institutions.²

Cornelis van Tienhoven, Secretary to the Director and Council, replies to this part of the Remonstrance:

Although the new schoolhouse, toward which the commonalty contributed something, has not yet been built, it is not the Director, but the church wardens, who have charge of the funds. The Director is busy providing materials. Meanwhile a place has been selected for a school, of which Jan Cornelissen has charge. The other teachers keep school in hired houses, so that the youth are not in want of schools to the extent of the circumstances of the country. ’Tis true there is no Latin school nor academy; if the commonalty require such, they can apply for it and furnish the necessary funds.

* * * * *

Their High Mightinesses granted those duties to the Company to facilitate garrisons, and the payment of the expenses attendant thereupon, and not for building hospitals and orphan asylums, churches and schoolhouses for the people.

* * * * *

If they [the people of New Netherland] are such patriots as they appear to be, let them be leaders in generous contributions for such laudable objects, and not complain when the Directors requested a collection towards the erection of a church and a school.³

The “other teachers” referred to by the Secretary, seem to have been Jan Stevenßen and Aryaen Jansen, accounts of whom as schoolmasters are found from 1643 to 1649, but nowhere as

¹ N. Y. Col. Doc. i, 800.

² N. Y. Col. Doc. i, 817.

³ N. Y. Col. Doc. i, 423, 424, 425, 431.

connected with the church school, of which this Jan Cornelissen was the second teacher.¹

About this time Cornelissen, perhaps in consequence of the dissensions which had arisen and the neglect to provide a suitable place for a school, signified his intention to resign; whereupon, Director Stuyvesant wrote to the Classis of Amsterdam "for a pious, well-qualified and diligent schoolmaster;" adding, that "nothing is of greater importance than the right, early instruction of youth."²

This application seems to have been referred by the Classis to the Directors of the West India Company, from whose letters to Director Stuyvesant we make the following extracts:

JAN. 27, 1649. We will make use of the first opportunity to supply you with a well-instructed schoolmaster; and shall inform ourselves about the person³ living at Härlem, whom your Honor recommended.⁴

FEB. 16, 1650. We appoint, at your request, a schoolmaster, who shall also act as comforter of the sick. He is considered an honest and pious man, and shall embark at the first opportunity.⁵

APRIL 15, 1650. The schoolmaster for whom you solicited, comes in the same vessel with this letter. The Lord grant that he may for a long time exemplify the favorable testimony which he carried with him from here, to the edification of the youth.⁶

Mr. Brodhead (p. 516) says the Classis of Amsterdam sent out Verstius, and refers to a letter of January 10, 1650, which seems to belong to the Correspondence of the Classis. This seems to confirm the opinion that Verstius was the teacher referred to by Stuyvesant and the West India Company.

In the early part of 1650, Secretary van Tienhoven drew up a paper entitled "Information relative to taking up land in New Netherland, in the form of colonies or private bouweries" [farms], which seems to have been intended for the use of the Directors of the West India Company, to facilitate emigration to New Netherland. After describing "those lands which are actually the most convenient and the best, and ought to be occupied the

¹ Dunshee, p. 85, who also quotes, N. Amst. Rec. v, 81, 150, 169,

² Dunshee, p. 85. Brodhead, i, 508. Cor. Cl. Am.

³ This person seems to have been William Verstius. [Sometimes spelled *Vestius* and *Vestens*.]

⁴ Alb. Rec. iv 17

⁵ Alb. Rec. iv, 23.

⁶ Alb. Rec. iv, 80.

earliest, where and how located," he states "what description of people are best adapted for agriculture in New Netherland, and to perform the most service and return the most profit in the beginning;" and it is interesting to find evidence of continued regard for education, and a recognition of its practical utility in new settlements, in the fact that he includes as one of the eleven classes of persons whose services are needed:

A clergyman, comforter of the sick, or precentor who could also act as schoolmaster.¹

We have already referred to the condition of morals as quite unfavorable. The following letter from the Directors of the West India Company to Stuyvesant, dated April 4, 1652, is interesting in this connection:

In ship Romein is embarked as super-cargo a person named Frederick Alkis, who has been a schoolmaster at Hoorn. He writes a good hand, but we know little else of him. He is recommended to us by a man of quality, and solicited that it might be permitted to him to remain there if he should be pleased with the country, which of course this College [meaning the Directors] could not reject, although it is against our usual practice; but it is sometimes a difficult task to give a denial. If his conduct is as good as his pen, and a schoolmaster wanted, his person might come into consideration, although it might be in our opinion desirable to put him first to the test; as we have observed that your clime does not reform much the manners of individuals, of which there is yet much less hope if the chiefs of the administration set a bad example to others. In this respect we received many complaints by those who return from New Netherland, in respect of the Attorney General, as of drunkenness and other vices. If he might continue such a disorderly life, then we shall be compelled to employ such means of restraint as we deem expedient.²

The committee of the States-General, to whom the "Remonstrance" of 1649 had been referred, reported a "Provisional order for the government, preservation and peopling of New Netherland," which contained the following article:

VI. New Netherland being now provided with only one clergyman, orders shall be given, forthwith, for the calling and support of at least three more: one to attend to divine service at Rensselaer's colonie; the second in and around the city of New Amsterdam; and the third in the distant settlements; and the commonalty shall be obliged to cause the youth to be instructed by good schoolmasters.³

Owing to a strenuous resistance on the part of the Directors of the West India Company to the "Provisional Order" as a whole, it was not ratified by the States-General. The Directors them-

¹ N. Y. Col. Doc. i, 861.

² Alb. Rec. iv, 74.

³ N. Y. Col. Doc. i, 889. O'Call. N. N. ii, 184.

selves, however, seem to have finally regarded the wishes of the remonstrants in regard to the appointment of "at least two good schoolmasters;" since they wrote to the Director General, on the 4th of April, 1652, as follows:

We give our consent—above all this—that one public school may be established, for which one schoolmaster would be sufficient, and he might be engaged at f250 annually. We recommend you Jan de la Montagne, whom we have provisionally favored with the appointment. Your Hon. may appropriate the City Tavern for this purpose, if this is practicable.¹ * * *

[The City Tavern, subsequently named the Stadt Huys or City Hall, stood on the corner of Pearl street and Coenties slip. . . . The present site is known as 71 and 73 Pearl street.² For a view and description of this ancient edifice, see Valentine's Manual, 1852, pp. 378, 403.]

The actual service of Montagne is established by the following minute:

On the petition of John Morice de la Montagne, the Director General and Council command the Comptroller to pay the suppliant three or four months of his wages.³

The fact that this second school was commenced and carried on for a brief period, is clearly established; but the absence of any subsequent reference to it, leads to the strong inference that its existence was of short duration. The principal school, however, was uninterruptedly conducted by Vestens, [Verstius] from 1650 to 1655.⁴

Having already seen that a school was in contemplation at Beverwyck in 1643, it is interesting to find that Andries Jansz. was employed as teacher in 1650.⁵ We infer from the statement in the next paragraph, that his service was of short duration.

The offices of clergyman and schoolmaster were nominally united in the person of Rev. Gideon Schaets, who was employed at Renselaerswyck Colonie in 1652, in addition to his regular services as clergyman of the colony, "to pay attention to the office of schoolmaster for old and young."⁶ Whether he actually officiated in this capacity does not appear from any subsequent records which we have seen.

In 1654, Verstius had petitioned the Classis of Amsterdam for an increase of salary,⁷ which seems not to have been granted.

¹ Alb. Rec. iv, 68.

² Dunshee, p. 38.

³ Alb. Rec. vi, 49.

⁴ Dunshee, p. 40.

⁵ O'Call. N. N. ii, 161, 162.

⁶ O'Call. N. N. ii, 567. Brodhead, p. 538,

⁷ Dunshee, p. 87.

The following Council minute occurs under date of January 26, 1655:

William Verstius, schoolmaster and chorister in this city, solicited the Council by a petition, as he had completed his service; and whereas there were now several persons fully competent to acquit themselves in this charge, that he might be favored with his dismission, and permitted to return to Holland in the first ship.

On which petition was given the apostil—that it would be communicated to the Consistory and Ministers.¹

The final action on the petition of Verstius for dismission was as follows:

Whereas William Vestius, chorister and schoolmaster of this city, hath several times earnestly solicited leave to depart for the Fatherland, so is his request granted him; and in consequence thereof, have the Noble Lords of the Supreme Council, with the consent of the respected Consistory of this city, appointed Harmanus Van Hoboocken as chorister and schoolmaster of this city, at g35 per month, and g100 annual expenditures; who promises to conduct himself industriously and faithfully; pursuant to the instructions already given, or hereafter to be given.

Done in Am., N. N., 23 March, 1655

(Signed)

NICASIUS DE SILLE,
LA MONTAGNE.²

Mr. Dunshee enumerates Verstius as the third, Montagne as the fourth, and Hoboocken as the fifth of the official schoolmasters in New Amsterdam (p. 51).

The following entry occurs on the Council minutes for Aug. 11, 1655:

A petition being read of Harman van Hoboocken, now the chorister in this city, soliciting—as he is burthened with a wife and four small children, without possessing any means for their sustenance, that his salary may be paid to him monthly, or, at least, quarterly, so is, after deliberation, given as apostil as long as the applicant remains in service, he may depend on the punctual payment of his salary.³

The records of the burgomasters and schepens of New Amsterdam, for 21, 1656, contain this minute.

The schout having exhibited, in conformity to instructions from the Hon'ble Director General and Council, the request of the schoolmaster, Harman van Hoboocken, in court, they endorse—

Said schoolmaster shall communicate to the burgomasters and schepens what he is allowed by each child per quarter, pursuant to instructions from the Lord General and Council, which being done, further order shall be taken on petitioner's request.⁴

¹ Alb. Rec. x, 6.

² Dunshee, p. 87. Alb. Rec. x, 20, 80; xxv, 133.

³ Alb. Rec. x, 81

⁴ N. Amst. Rec. ii, 257.

In 1656, the first survey of the city was made, and it was ascertained to possess 120 houses and 1,000 souls; and "the number of children at the public school having greatly increased, further accommodation was allowed to Hoboocken, the schoolmaster."¹ His schoolhouse having been burned partly down,² he addressed the following application to the city magistrates, dated Nov. 4, 1656:

To the Heeren Burgomasters and Schepens of the City of New Amsterdam :

The reverential request of Harmanus van Hoboocken, schoolmaster of the city, is, that he may be allowed the use of the hall and side-chamber of the City Hall, for the use of his school and as a residence for his family, inasmuch as he, the petitioner, has no place to keep school in, or to live in during the winter, it being necessary that the rooms should be made warm, which cannot be done in his own house, from its unfitness. The petitioner further represents that he is burthened with a wife and children so that he is much at a loss how to make accommodation for his family and school-children. The petitioner, therefore, asks that he may use the chamber wherein Gouert Coerten at present dwells. Expecting a favorable answer,

HARM. VAN HOBOOCKEN.³

The Burgomasters' reply, on the same day, to this petition was as follows:

Whereas, the room which the petitioner asks for his use as a dwelling and schoolroom is out of repair, and moreover is wanted for other uses, it cannot be allowed to him. But, as the town youth are doing so uncommon well now, it is thought proper to find a convenient place for their accommodation, and for that purpose, petitioner is granted one hundred guilders yearly.⁴

The version in the New Amsterdam Records (ii, 641, 642), differs in important particulars from the foregoing. (See *Appendix.*)

The burning of the schoolhouse, while the youth were "doing so uncommon well," led to the revival of the question of procuring a suitable edifice; and the magistrates of the city, writing the 7th of the following November to the West India Company, "assert that the only revenue to the city was that arising from the excise of wines and beers, and that this was needed for immediate expenses in repairing the city wall, the schoeyinge, the city hall, the watch apartments, the building of the schoolhouse, and for several other improvements, and ask thereon the advice of the Company."⁵ It is not known what answer was returned to this application, but one thing is certain; the condition of the city finances was such, "the old debt made in the time of the English troubles being yet unliquidated," that the schoolhouse was not built.⁶

¹ O'Call. N. N. ii, 540. Brod. p. 623.

² Paulding's N. Amst. p. 40.

³ Dunshee, pp. 41, 42. N. Amst. Rec. ii, 640.

⁴ Dunshee, p. 42. Paulding, p. 41. N. Amst. Rec. ii, 641.

⁵ In the same letter "the building of schools" is mentioned in describing "what is most urgent."

⁶ Dunshee, p. 42. N. Amst. Rec. ii, 637 638.

The excise tax, above referred to, had been imposed by the Director General and Council as early as 1644,¹ and again in 1647, to provide means to carry on the public service. In 1653, the proceeds of the excise being inadequate, the city of New Amsterdam, which, during the preceding year had been invested with municipal privileges, was called upon to redeem certain pledges made by the Burgomasters, which they agreed to fulfill, provided the entire proceeds of the excise were relinquished to them.² After a long dispute, a compromise was made, the Burgomasters proposing to support at the expense of the city the following, among others:

Of the *Ecclesiastique*.

One of the Ministers ;
 One Precentor, being at the same time schoolmaster ;
 One Dog-whipper. (N. B. Now called sexton.)³

This seems to have been the first municipal provision for the support of schools in the colony. It proved, however, to be merely nominal; and as neither the clergymen, the schoolmaster, nor the sexton were paid, the Director and Council reclaimed the excise in 1654, and farmed it out, paying from the proceeds a part, at least, of the salaries then due.⁴

About the same time (1654), municipal privileges were granted to the Dutch towns on Long Island, and a superior District Court was organized, with general authority to regulate roads, build churches, establish schools, and make local laws subject to the approval of the Provincial government. This arrangement continued until 1661,⁵ though we as yet find no evidence that any of the local schools hereafter mentioned were thus established.

The condition of education in 1657, is set forth in the following communication in regard to the state of the churches in New Netherland, addressed to the Classis in Amsterdam:

* * * * *

So it stands in this province with our churches. It is to be added that (to our knowledge) not one of all these places, whether Dutch or English villages, hath a schoolmaster, except the Manhattans, Beverwyck, and now one also at Fort Casimir on the South River; and though some parents would give their children

¹ Brod. N. Y. p. 894.

² O'Call. N. N. ii, 28, 255.

³ Valentine's Man. 1848, p. 378.

⁴ O'Call. N. N. ii, 298. Brod. N. Y. p. 590.

⁵ Brod. N. Y. 580. O'Call. N. N. ii, 271.

some instruction, yet they experience much difficulty, and nothing else is to be expected than a ruined youth and a bewilderment of men's minds. Scarcely any means can be seen to remedy this evil: 1, because some villages are only in their first establishment, and whilst people come naked and poor from Holland, they have not means to provide a minister and schoolmaster: 2, because there are few qualified persons in this country who can or will teach. * * *

At Amsterdam, in N. Netherland.

August 5, 1657.

JOH. MEGAPOLENSIS,

SAMUEL DRISIUS.¹

While the official schoolmasters were remunerated from the Government funds, we find Adriaen van Ilpendam, and others, instituting law-suits against individuals, for the payment of tuition in beavers and shillings.²

The currency of New Amsterdam was in general composed of Indian money, called wampum or seawant, and of the skins of animals, principally of the beaver.

The seawant gradually depreciated in value, so that in 1659, sixteen guilders in seawant, at the stated rate of value, were required in exchange for one beaver, of eight guilders value; about three dollars each.³

The following is a copy of the court record in regard to two suits brought by Ilpendam:

Ordinary Sessions in Fort Orange,
1 Sept., 1660.

Adriaen van Ilpendam, plaintiff, vs. Gillis Pietersen, def.

The plaintiff demands of the defendant payment of ten and a half beaver and two shillings, for school money.

The defendant acknowledges the debt.

The court condemns the defendant to pay the plaintiff the demanded beavers, and this within six weeks.

Adriaen van Ilpendam, plaintiff, vs. Peter Lockerman, def.

The plaintiff demands payment of two beavers for one year's school money.

The defendant acknowledges the debt.

The court condemns the defendant [as above].⁴

The earliest observed mention of Evert Pietersen, the sixth regular schoolmaster in New Amsterdam, occurs in the following quotation:

Extract from the letter of Evert Pietersen, comforter of the sick, and schoolmaster in the Colonie established by this city, Amsterdam, on the South [Delaware] River, in New Netherland, dated 10th August, 1657:

¹ N. Y. Doc. Hist. iii, 71 (4^o ed.), 107 (8^o ed.).

² Dunshee, p. 89.

³ Paulding, pp. 28, 80, 81.

⁴ Alb. Rec. vi, 295.

We arrived here at the South River, on the 25th April, and found 20 families there, mostly Swedes, not more than 5 or 6 families belonging to our nation.

I already begin to keep school, and have 25 children etc.

EVERT PIETERSEN.¹

During the winter of 1658-59, the colony at New Amstel, on the Delaware, experienced great distress, so that in a few months famine, sickness and desertion had reduced the population to less than thirty families. Several of those who left the colony came to New Amsterdam, among whom was Evert Pietersen, who from the first had been their schoolmaster. Here he was employed by the Director General, according to Mr. Dunshee, either as a colleague with Hoboocken, or as his *locum tenens*, while he was disqualified from teaching by sickness. It appears, however, from the action of the city officials, and from an "Order in Council," which Mr. Dunshee quotes at length, that he was superseded by Pietersen, and was subsequently employed in Stuyvesant's "bouwery" as far north as Twelfth street, Pietersen's school being at the south end of the island.²

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, 16 January, 1660: In the City Hall.

Mr. Hermen van Hoboocke requests by petition that he may receive an allowance from the city, as he is behindhand with the building of the school, and for divers other reasons set forth in the petition; on which petition is apostilled:

Petitioner is allowed to receive his current year's salary, which shall be paid him at a more convenient season, on an order of the burgomasters on the Heer Treasurer, and his allowance is henceforth abolished.³

The following is the "Order in Council" above referred to, dated Oct. 27, 1661:

Whereas, Harman van Hoboocken, before schoolmaster and chorister, was removed because another was sent to replace him [Pietersen], by the Lords Directors and the Consistory, solicits to be employed again in one or other manner in the Company's service, so is he engaged as *Adelborst* [signifying a sergeant or something above a common soldier], and allowed 10 guilders per month and 175g. for board, from 27th Oct., 1661.

Nota: Whereas the aforesaid Harman is a person of irreproachable life and conduct, so shall he be employed on the bouwery of the Director General as schoolmaster and clerk [voorleser], with this condition, that the Director General, whenever his service might be wanted for the Company as *adelborst*, shall replace him by another expert person.⁴

¹ N. Y. Col. Doc. ii, 17.

² Dunshee, pp. 45, 47.

³ N. Amst. Rec. iii, 407, 408.

⁴ Alb. Rec. xix, 888.

From this date, until after the capitulation, there were two schools under the care of the Consistory; Pietersen's, at or near Fort Amsterdam, and Hoboocken's, on the Bouwery.¹

The period of Pietersen's engagement is not definitely known; but on his return to Holland he petitioned the West India Company for a permanent engagement, the Director General and magistrates recommending his reappointment.²

The Directors of the Company wrote to Stuyvesant, December 24, 1660:

We will consider the petition of Mr. Evert Pietersen, late schoolmaster and chorister in the colonie of the city, to be employed again in the Company's service, and return thither with his wife, and inquire here about his character, conduct and abilities, when we shall communicate the result to your Honour.³

Subsequently the following letter, dated May 2, 1661, was received by Governor Stuyvesant:

The Directors of the West India Company, Department of Amsterdam, to the honorable, prudent, beloved, trusty Petrus Stuyvesant, Director General and Council, make known:

Whereas, we have deemed it necessary to promote religious worship, and to read to the inhabitants the word of God, to exhort them, to lead them in the ways of the Lord, and console the sick, that an expert person was sent to New Netherland, in the city of New Amsterdam, who at the same time should act there as chorister and schoolmaster; so it is, that we, upon the good report which we have received about the person of *Evert Pietersen*, and confiding in his abilities and experience in the aforesaid services, together on his pious character and virtues, have, on your Honor's recommendation, and that of the magistrates of the city of New Amsterdam, appointed the aforesaid person as consoler of the sick, chorister and schoolmaster, at New Amsterdam, in New Netherland, which charge he shall fulfil there, and conduct himself in these with all diligence and faithfulness; also we expect that he shall give others a good example, so as it becomes a pious and good consoler, clerk, chorister and schoolmaster; regulating himself in conformity to the instructions which he received here from the Consistory, and principally to the instructions which he received from us, which he shall execute in every point faithfully: Wherefore, we command all persons, without distinction, to acknowledge the aforesaid Evert Pietersen as consoler, clerk, chorister and schoolmaster in New Amsterdam, in New Netherland, and not to molest, disturb or ridicule him in any of these offices, but rather to offer him every assistance in their power, and deliver him from every painful sensation, by which the will of the Lord and our good intentions shall be accomplished.

Done by the Department of Amsterdam, on the 2d of May, XVI^c and sixty-one.

(Signed) ABRAM WILMERDONCX.

By order of the above,

C. VAN SEVENTER.⁴

¹ Dunshee, p. 47. ² Dunshee, p. 43. O'Call. N. N. ii, 874, 888. Brod. N. Y. 652, 653.

³ Alb. Rec. iv, 864.

⁴ Alb. Rec. viii, 321. Dunshee, p. 44.

In a few days, another letter from the same source, dated May 9th, 1661, was received, in which Pietersen's salary is fixed, and instructions given with respect to the books he would need as *krankbesoecker* (comforter of the sick):¹

Honorable, prudent, beloved Faithful:

We have engaged, on your Honor's recommendation and that of the magistrates of the city of New Amsterdam, Mr. Evert Pietersen as schoolmaster and clerk, upon a salary of g36 per month [\$.15], and g125 [\$.52+] annually for his board, who is now embarked in the ship The Gilded Beaver,² but not with his wife, whose indisposition, as he said, prevented her departure. And whereas, he solicited to be supplied with some books and stationery, which would be of service to him in that station, so did we resolve to send you a sufficient quantity of these articles, as your Honor may see from the invoice. Your Honor ought not to place all these at his disposal at once, but from time to time, when he may be in want of these, when his account ought directly to be charged with its amount; so, too, he must be charged with all such books of which he may be in want as a consoler of the sick, which he might have obtained from your Honor, which afterwards might be reimbursed to him, whenever he, ceasing to serve in that capacity, might return these; all this must be valued at the invoice price.³

This correspondence establishes Evert Pietersen as the sixth schoolmaster of the Reformed Dutch Church school.⁴

The requirement that all teachers be licensed, seems to have been duly observed and enforced, as appears by the following extracts from the Council minutes and the New Amsterdam Records:

Andreas Hudde appeared before the Director General and Council, and solicited a license to keep school—received for answer that the Council shall ask upon his proposal the opinion of the Minister and the Consistory. Done in New Amsterdam, 31 December, 1665.⁵

On motion—The Attorney General is commanded, to go to the house of Jacob Van Corler, who has, since some time, arrogated to himself to keep school, and to warn him that Director General and Council have deemed it proper to send him a *supersedeas*—till he shall have solicited and obtained from the Director General and Council an act *in propria forma*. 19 February, 1658.⁶

To the Rt. Hon^{ble} Lords the Lord Director Genl. and Lords Councillors of N. Netherland:

Right Hon^{ble} Lords—The burgomasters and schepens of the city of Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, represent with all respect, that some burghers and inhab-

¹ Dunshee, p. 44.

² N. Y. Doc. Hist. iii, 87 (4^o ed.), 58 (8^o ed.).

³ Alb. Rec. iv, 878.

⁴ Alb. Rec. ix, 309.

⁵ Dunshee, p. 45.

⁶ Alb. Rec. xiv, 114.

itants of the abovenamed city have presented a certain petition to this Court, whereof a copy is hereunto annexed, remonstrating that your Honours were pleased to notify Jacob van Corlaar, through the Heer Fiscal Nicasius de Sille, not to keep any school; and as they, the petit^{rs}, find themselves greatly interested thereby, as their children had forgot what the above named Jacob van Corlaar had to their great satisfaction previously taught them in reading, writing and cyphering, which was much more than any other person, no one excepted: therefore they request that the above named Corlaar may be allowed again to keep school; and although the above named burgomasters and two schepens have spoken verbally thereon to your Hon^{rs}, and your Hon^{rs} were not pleased to allow it, for reasons thereunto moving your Hon^{rs}, they therefore, in consequence of the humble supplication of the burghers and inhabitants aforesaid, again request that your Hon^{rs} may be pleased to permit the above named Corlaar again to keep school, which doing, we remain your Hon^{rs} subjects. The Burgomasters and Schepens.

In Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, the 5th March, 1658.

By order of the Burgom^{rs} and Schepens of the city aforesaid.

JOANNES NEVIUS, Sec'y.¹

In Council, 19 March [1658].

Presented a petition of burgomasters and schepens of this city—soliciting, that Jacob Van Corlear, who, on the 19 February last, was interdicted by the Director General and Council to keep school, might be permitted it in the city. The apostill was—

School-keeping and the appointment of schoolmasters depend absolutely from the *jus Patronatus* in virtue of which Director General and Council interdicted school-keeping to Jacob Van Corlear, as having arrogated it to himself without their orders—in which resolution they do as yet persist.²

Being presented a petition of Jacobus Van Corler, soliciting the permission to keep school within this city, and to instruct children in reading and writing.

For weighty reasons influencing the Director General and Council—the apostil was *nihil actum*. 26 March, 1658.³

A petition being presented of Jan Lubberts, soliciting, that he might be permitted to keep school—to instruct in reading, writing and arithmetic:

The apostill was:

The petition is granted—provided he conducts himself as such a person ought to do. 30 July, 1658.⁴

To the Hon. Respectful, Valiant Director General and Council in N. N.:

Shows with all due and submissive reverence Jan Juriaense Becker, your supplicant, that he, through the caprices of the unsteady Fortune—since a short time—not knowing why—has been compelled to become a tavern-keeper—for which he nearly sacrificed all what he possessed—and whereas, the supplicant is apprehensive that many difficulties, and even poverty is threatening him and his family—So is it, that the supplicant, imploring addresses himself to your Hon.,

¹ N. Amst. Rec. iii, 87, 88.

² Alb. Rec. xiv, 151.

³ Alb. Rec. xiv, 158.

⁴ Alb. Rec. xiv, 318.

soliciting most humbly, that it may please your Hon. to regard with pity the suppliant, being an old Company's servant, and to employ him as a writer in the service of the Company, either in the Esopus—here or anywhere else, where ever your Hon. might deem it proper—or—if your Hon. cannot employ him at this time in their service—that then the suppliant might be permitted to keep school, to instruct the youth in reading and writing, &c. Expecting a favorable apostill, he remains

Your Hon. obedient ser't,
J. BECKER.

Done in Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, 15 Aug. 1660.

The apostill was: *Fiat*—the keeping of a school. 16 August [1660].¹

To the Noble, great and Respected the Director General and Council in N. Netherland:

Shows reverently, Johannes Van Gelder, a citizen and inhabitant of this city, how that he, suppliant,—being tolerably well acquainted with reading and writing, it has happened that several of the principal inhabitants of this city advised and encouraged him too—to open a public school, and consequently induced the suppliant—who looks out for a living in an honorable way—to adopt their advice—in the hope that he shall execute this task to their satisfaction who shall make use of his service—but as this is not permitted, except that an admission is previously obtained, so he addresses himself to your Hon's, requesting their admission for this exercise—viz—keeping a public school—which doing, &c.

Your Honors' subject and servant,
JOHANNES VAN GELDER.

The apostill was: *Fiat, quod petitur*. 21 September, 1662.²

The foundation of the first academy and classical school, in the city of New Amsterdam, has been ascribed³ to a representation transmitted to Holland, Sept. 19, 1658, as part of a petition of the burgomasters and schepens to the West India Company, a copy of which is hereafter given. We find, however, an earlier document on this subject, as follows:

The Directors of the West India Company to the Director General. 20 May, 1658:

* * * * *

The Rev. Driesius mentioned to us more than once that it might, in his opinion, be serviceable if a Latin school was established, in which the youth might be instructed—in which he was willing to engage his service; and whereas, we do not disapprove this plan, so we thought its communication proper, that your Hon., if you considered it proper to make an experiment of such an establishment, might advise us in what manner such an institution might be carried into effect to the greatest advantage for the community, and with the least expense to the Company.⁴

The representation of the burgomasters and schepens, above referred to, dated Sept. 19, 1658, was in the following words:

¹ Alb. Rec. xxiv, 874, 875.

² Paulding's N. Amst. 41. Dunshee, 52.

³ Alb. Rec. xx, 215.

⁴ Alb. Rec. iv, 268.

It is represented that the youth of this place and the neighborhood are increasing in number gradually, and that most of them can read and write; but that some of the citizens and inhabitants would like to send their children to a school the Principal of which understands Latin, but are not able to do so without sending them to New England: furthermore, they have not the means to hire a Latin schoolmaster expressly for themselves from New England, and therefore they ask that the West India Company will send out a fit person as Latin schoolmaster, not doubting that the number of persons who will send their children to such teacher will from year to year increase, until an academy shall be formed, whereby this place to great splendor will have attained, for which, next to God, the Honorable Company which shall have sent such teacher here shall have laud and praise. For our own part, we shall endeavor to find a fit place in which the schoolmaster shall hold his school.¹ (See *Appendix.*)

The engagement of Alexander Carolus Curtius, as the first teacher of the Latin school, is recorded in the following extract from the Register of Resolutions of the Directors of the West Indian Company Department of Amsterdam, as communicated to the officials of New Amsterdam:

THURSDAY the 10 April, 1659.

Appeared before the Directors, Alexander Carolus Curtius, before a Professor in Lithuania, of whom mention is made in former minutes, who made an offer of his services, on which it was resolved to engage him as schoolmaster in the Latin language, in New Netherland, on a salary of *f*500 annually—of which shall be advanced to him a fourth, to provide himself with the necessary books—and moreover he was presented by the Directors with one hundred guilders, which he may employ in merchandise to be of service to him at his arrival in N. Netherland.

When he arrives there, a proper spot for a garden and orchard shall be given him by the Director General, while he is further permitted to give private instruction, if it does not interfere with the office which he has accepted.²

The Directors wrote to the Director General, under date of April 25, 1659:

Our earnest exertions to provide your city with a Latin schoolmaster shall, we expect, be placed beyond doubt by the arrival of Alexander Carolus Curtius, who was before a Professor in Lithuania, whom we have engaged for this purpose, allowing him an annual salary of *f*500, . . . boarding included, besides one hundred more as a gift, to purchase merchandise, of which he may dispose to his advantage at his arrival, as you will see from the inclosed extract of our resolutions, and the copy of our contract with him.

* * * * *

The books which the schoolmaster required to instruct the youth in the Latin language, will not be made ready from the unexpected departure of the vessels wherefore this must be postponed to the next opportunity.³

¹ Paulding's N. Amst. 41, 42. Dunshee, p. 52. N. Amst. Rec. iii, 233.

² Alb. Rec. viii, 201, 202.

³ Alb. Rec. iv, 308, 305.

The Latin schoolmaster was present at a meeting of the burgo-masters in the City Hall, Friday, July 4, 1659:

Alexander Carolus Curtius appears in Court, who is informed that *f1200* are allowed him as a yearly present from the city; an order on the Treasurer is also handed him for *f50* over and above, which he thankfully accepts; but requests, as he has but few scholars as yet, that his salary may be somewhat increased, as the beginning entails great expence, saying, whenever he gets 25 to 30 children to the school, he shall serve for less salary; but refers it to the discretion of the No: Magistrates.¹

The arrival of the Latin schoolmaster is also mentioned in a letter from Stuyvesant and the Council, to the Directors, dated July 23, 1659:

The person of Alexander Carolus Curtius, whom your Hon. engaged to instruct in the Latin language, arrived here. We hope and confide that the community shall reap great benefits from it for their children, for which we pray that a bountiful God may vouchsafe his blessing. The state of this new institution shall be ere long communicated to your Hon.²

The Directors wrote to Stuyvesant, December 22, 1659:

The complaints which have been made by the Latin schoolmaster or rector shall, in our opinion, in great part be removed. Now henceforward the payment is made according to the value of Holland currency. If to this sum is added that which he receives from his pupils annually, then it would seem to be adequate for the sustenance of a single individual—more so—as his salary from time to time must be increased by the increase of the youth whose parents cannot decently neglect to reward his endeavors which he bestows on the instruction of their children. In this your Hon. ought to assist him, and recommend him to the parents, as the circumstances of time may permit.³

The following is an extract from a letter of William Beeckman, at that time Vice-Director of the colony on Delaware river, to Director General Stuyvesant, dated New Amstel, March 15, 1660:

Noble, Honorable, Respectful, Wise and very Prudent Sir :

* * * * *

I kindly solicit that your Hon. will permit me—when an opportunity is offered—to visit the Manhattans in May or June. I intend to bring my two oldest boys to school.⁴

* * * * *

It is presumed that Mr. Beeckman here refers to the Latin school under consideration.

¹ N. Amst. Rec. iii, 378. Paulding's N. Amst. p. 42.

² Alb. Rec. xviii, 19, 20.

³ Alb. Rec. iv, 325.

⁴ Alb. Rec. xvii, 43.

That Professor Curtius was also a physician, appears from the following extract of a letter from the Directors to Stuyvesant, dated April 16, 1660:

As we have been informed that Rector Curtius is practising physic, and did solicit that we would provide him with an *Herbarium*, which would be to him of great service, so we send him this book by the present opportunity, which your Honour will deliver to him—but the book ought to remain the property of the Company—so, too, the books which have been lately transmitted. Your Honour ought to make a memorandum of all these articles, so that it may not be forgotten.¹

Rector Curtius seems not, however, to have justified the anticipations formed in regard to himself and the school. He soon became involved in a petty, but protracted and unsuccessful law-suit, as appears from the following curious records of the Burgo-masters' Court, commencing Jan. 13, 1660:

Capt. Jan Jacob, pltf, vs. Alexander Carolus Curtius, def., and Daniel Tourneur, deft. Alexander default. Pltf demands benefit of the default.

Daniel Tourneur appearing, declares to have sold a hog for Capt. Jacob to Alexander Carolus Curtius, for five beavers, and having recd the hog, therefor saying and promising to give two beavers down, and the remaining three at the end of the month.

Capt. Jacob says he hath attached the Galiot [hog?], requesting that the attachment be declared valid.

The W: Court declare the attachment valid.²

20 Jan., 1660.

Jan Jacobsen, pltf, vs. Alexander Carolus Curtius, def.

Pltf demands from def. five beavers for a hog, according to evidence of Daniel Tourneur, and the costs accrued thereon.

Def. offers an exception as not being amenable before this Court, but before the Director General and Council; says he purchased a hog for two beavers and two blankets, and can prove so by Jan Schriver, who, being called in, appears and declares that Dome. Rector commissioned him to buy a hog for two blankets and two beavers, and says that Daniel Tourneur, as authorized by Jan Jacobz., told him that Dome. Rector should have the hog for two beavers and two blankets.

The W: Court order parties on both sides to summon their witnesses against the next Court, to confront them with each other.³

11 Feb., 1660.

Alexander Carolus Curtius appears in Court, requests that his witnesses may be heard relative to the hogs in dispute with Capt. Jacob.

Jan Schryver appears as witness in Court, who is informed that the Rector calls on him; whereupon he declares that the hog in question was bought for two beavers and two blankets; offering to confirm the same on oath.

¹ Alb. Rec. iv, 341, 342.

² N. Amst. Rec. iv, 136.

³ N Amst. Rec. iv, 143.

And whereas, Capt. Jacob's witness has not been heard, Capt. Jacob is ordered to summon Daniel Tourneur at the next Court day.¹

17 Feb., 1660.

Daniel Tourneur and Jan Schryver appearing in Court, are asked about the sale of the hog which took place between Capt. Jacob and the Rector Alexander Carolus Curtius.

Daniel Tourneur declares that, after many words of praising and bidding, the hog was sold to Dome. Rector for five beavers, saying that Capt. Jacob would not sell that hog less than five beavers, which was told to the Rector; to which the Rector answered, saying, in God's name he had but two beavers, and he must wait for the other three; to which Capt. Jacob would hardly agree: finally, through the mediation of Joannes Meulen, he let himself be persuaded; offering to confirm the same on oath.

The W: Court gave the parties eight days respite to recollect themselves, and if they have any proof, to bring it also in.²

1 June, 1660. Deft [Curtius] default.

24 August, 1660.

Capt. Jan Jacobzen, pltff, vs. Alexander Carolus Curtius, deft, and Danl. Tourneur as witness. Deft default.

Pltff produces certain written declaration of Daniel Tourneur relative to the sale of the hogs in question, which the pltff sold to the deft, declaring, under offer of oath, that the same were sold for five beavers; and whereas Jan Schryver is also acquainted with the purchase, he was ordered to be called, who, appearing, declares under offer of oath, that the sale was for two beavers and two coverlets; and whereas both these offer to confirm their declaration by oath, the W: Court tendered the oath to Daniel Tourneur, who, having taken the same, the deft was condemned to pay the plaintiff the five beavers which he promised to pay for the hogs in question.³

7 Sept., 1660.

Alexander Carolus Curtius appears in Court, acknowledging to have received the judgment pronounced against him in the matter between him and Capt. Jan Jacobz, saying for this time he submits to the same.⁴

Curtius was likewise at variance with the magistrates, as is indicated by the following:

Extract from the Register of Resolutions adopted by the Honble Lord Director Genl. and Council of New Netherland, on Tuesday, 25th May, a^o. 1660.

Whereas the Honble Lord Director General and Burgomasters have last year allowed and ordained the Heer Rector Carolus Curtius to take six guilders per quarter, school money, for each boy, and burgomasters had, on these conditions, allowed him a yearly salary from this city of two hundred guilders; and whereas it has come to the burgomasters' ears, that the Heer Rector, of his own pleasure,

¹ N. Amst. Rec. iv, 182.

² N. Amst. Rec. iv, 190, 191.

³ N. Amst. Rec. iv, 295, 296.

⁴ N. Amst. Rec. iv, 315.

takes one beaver per quarter from each boy, which is contrary to the order, burgomasters do therefore hereby give him warning and notice, not to take any more than what is fixed upon by the Hon^{ble} Lord Director General and burgomasters, or through neglect thereof burgomasters shall retain his yearly stipend which the Hr. Rector receives from this city, and he shall receive no further allowance from this city. Done Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, the 9th August, 1660.¹

12 July, 1661.

Alexander Carolus Curtius communicates in writing the offer of his services, if this city will contribute to him six hundred guilders a year in beavers, on condition of receiving no contribution from the youth. Whereupon serves as marginal order :

Burgomasters and schepens refer the petition to the Rt. Hon^{ble} Lord Director General and Council of New Netherland.²

Still further, he was unpopular with his patrons:

The parents complained of the want of proper discipline among his pupils, "who beat each other and tore the clothes from each other's backs." He retorted by saying, "his hands were tied, as some of the parents forbade him punishing their children." The result was, the school changed rectors. Doctor Curtius returned to Holland, and the Rev. Aegidius Luyck, who had been brought over specially to superintend the education of the Director General's sons, became principal of the High School.³ * * * * *

Director Stuyvesant wrote to the Directors of the West India Company at Amsterdam, July 21, 1661:

* * * * *
What Alexander Carolus Curtius, the Rector or Latin schoolmaster, dismissed by your Honors, has remonstrated and requested of us on his departure, your Honors can deduce from his annexed petition.⁴
* * * * *

No copy of this petition of Curtius seems to have been preserved, nor do we find any later record concerning him.

We are not aware that any town on Long Island had a school at an earlier date than the one established at Midwout, now Flatbush.

A lot for a village schoolhouse was set apart by an

Ordinance of the Director General and Council of New Netherland, authorizing the laying out of the village of Midwout. Passed 16 October, 1655.
* * * * *

We, therefore, do hereby authorize said magistrates, *Strycker, Hegeman* and *Swartwout*, to lay out the aforesaid village according to the exhibited plan; pro-

¹ N. Amst. Rec. iii, 427, 428.

² N. Amst. Rec. iv, 565.

³ Dunshee, p. 58. O'Call. N. N. ii, 546. Brod. p. 694.

⁴ N. Y. Col. MSS. xiv, 296 (as translated by Dr. O'Callaghan).

vided that 5 *a* 6 lots be reserved for public buildings, such as for the Sheriff, the Minister, the Secretary, Schoolmaster, Village Tavern and public Court House.

* * * * *

Done in the Assembly of the Hon^{ble} Director General and Council of *New Netherland*, holden in *Fort Amsterdam*. Dated as above.¹

The following document seems to refer to some of the aforesaid lots:

To the Hon. Petrus Stuyvesant, and Members of Council in New Netherland:

Remonstrate with all humility and due reverence the schepens of the Court in Midwout—how that they, remonstrants, often have petitioned how necessary and how beneficial the four church lots would be to the village Midwout and its inhabitants, and how much it would relieve the burthens of the inhabitants—when it pleased your Hon. at length to give for an apostill—that further written information was required—and in what manner it was intended that the aforesaid church lots were to be administered.

Whereon we think it proper to communicate farther the following information to your Hon., and to explain this somewhat farther. It should seem to us—with submission to your Hon. better judgment, that the best means were, by which the prosperity of the village of Midwout and its inhabitants would be most efficaciously promoted—as we will take the liberty to explain more at large.

First, that 25 morgen²—situated to the east—with its appendages—might be employed to repair the church and keep it in a decent order—this is lying to the east of the plain and south of the road.

Secondly, the other 25 morgen—lying too at the east side of the market, and at the north side of the road, with its appurtenances and privileges, to the maintenance of a school, church service, etc., which, if it is approved and consented by your Honours, shall be employed for these purposes.

* * * * *

(Signed)

JAN STRYCKER,
ADRIAEN HEGEMAN,
WILLEM JACOBSE VAN BOEREM.

By order of the Schepens of Midwout aforesaid.

PIETER TONNEMAN, *Secret. pro tem.*

On this petition being read and considered, the following apostill was given:

The two first points, with regard to the lots, are granted to the supplicants so as they are favored with these, for those beneficial purposes, as were explained by the supplicants.

* * * * *

Done in the meeting of the Director General and Council, in *Fort Amsterdam*, in *New Netherland*, on the 29 January, 1658.³

That a school was actually established in Midwout as early as 1659, appears from the following paragraph:

¹ O'Call. Laws of N. N. p. 199. N. Y. Col. MSS. vi, 106.

² A *morgen* was about two acres.

³ Alb. Rec. xiv, 73, 74, 75.

The early Dutch settlers . . . took measures for the education of their children, and the maintenance of suitable schools. Among the first records of the town, we find notice of the employment of a schoolmaster. Much care seems to have been taken, not only in the selection, but in the agreements formed with the teachers of their children. The first schoolmaster of whom we have any knowledge, was Adrian Hegeman, . . . one of the original proprietors of the town. . . . He was the ancestor . . . probably of the whole family of Hegemans, now living. He was engaged as schoolmaster from 1659 to 1671.

From the records of the town, it appears that the schoolmaster acted as town clerk; and as the rates of tuition were low, previously to the American revolution, the offices of sexton, and "foresinger," or chorister, of the church, were conferred upon him with a view to increase his emoluments.¹ * * *

The same author gives further information relative to more recent periods, which we reserve for future articles.

The following document refers to a schoolmaster not mentioned in Strong's History of Flatbush:

To the Director General and Council in N. Netherland:

We, the subscribers, remonstrate with submission—that we thankfully received from our church a subsidy to the amount of *f*415:10, but there remain yet in arrears by Mr. Jacob N., surgeon - - - - - *f*77

by our schoolmaster, Reinier - - - - - 32

and yet by one barquier, Sander N. - - - - - 81

together - - - - - *f*190

which we had flattered ourselves to pay of the remnants—it is, however, so, that by want of payment, we must remain in want. So that we are again compelled to address your Hons. and reverently to solicit that we may be relieved from it. Which doing, &c. 29 March, 1661. Midwout. In the name of our whole congregation.

JOH. THEO. POLHEMIUS,

JAN STRYCKER.

The following apostill was given: As soon [as] the state of the treasury shall permit it—then to the supplicant shall by the Company, in behalf of the church, be paid the half of the aforesaid sum by the Receiver.²

The second school on Long Island of which we find any record, was established at the English settlement called Middleburg, now Newtown.

After the death of Rev. John Moore, minister of Middleburg, in 1657, his family were left in quiet possession of the town-house, the only public building in the place, and which served, as occasion required, the several purposes of a church, school-house and parsonage. After the lapse of four and one-half years, during which period the town had been destitute of the public

¹ Strong's Hist. of Flatbush, pp. 108, 109.

² Alb. Rec. xix, 95.

means of grace, the deficiency was to be in part supplied by the services of a schoolmaster, and it was expected that Mr. Doughty, who had married the widow of Mr. Moore, would surrender the premises for the use of the new teacher. He, however, objected to this, which gave rise to the following curious memorial, the original of which is in English, and illustrates the antique handwriting and orthography of that period:¹

To the Hon. Lord Stuyvesant, Lord General off the New Netherlands, the humble petition of your Lordship's petitioners :

That whearas God hath beene pleased off laet years to deprive us of Middleburrow, of Long Island, off the publyck meanes of grace & salvation, and also of education of our children, in scholasticall discipline, the way to true happiness, but yet God in mercy of laet hath provided for us a helpe meete for the disciplyne of education of our children, and by the same person helpe in the Sabath exercyses, wee, therefore, who never gave nor consented to the giveinge off the howsinge, and lands, buildt and fenced in, and alsooo dedicated for the use off the publyck dispensation of Gods word unto us wee humbly intreate your Honorable Lordshipe, that this our sayde schoolmaster, Richard Mills by name, may bee by your Lordships order possessed of the sayde housinge and lands for his use and ours alsoo, for our childrens education and the Sabaths exercysse, the which God doeth require, and we have needs for us and our children theroff: as the howsinge now stands, it is licke all to goe to reecke and ruyne, the fences faellinge downe, the house and barne decayinge & wanteth repaire, and Francis Dowtye doeth not repaire it, nor the towne, as it stands betweene him and them, wil not repaire it, and by this meanes is licke to come to nothing in a shorte time—and soo wee and your Lordship alsoo, by this meanes, shalle be disappointed; therfore our humble request is to your Lordshipp, is, that this our schoolmaster, and at present our souls helpe in dispencinge God's word to us and our children everye Lords day, may bee settele in it, to injoye it without any molestation, from Francis Doughty, or any of his, for soo longe time our God shall bee pleased to continue him amongst us, or to provyde another for us, thus knowinge that your Lordship is as willinge, to further our soules good as well as our bodyes—wee rest your Lordships humble petitioners & loyal subjects.

Was signed,

THOMAS HUNTE,	MARY RYDER,
FRANCIS SWAYNE,	JOHN BARCKER,
JAMES BRADISH,	JOHN LAUSRIEN,
JAMES LAWRENSEN,	THOMAS CORNISH,
NICOLAS CARTER,	SAMUEL TOE.

This petition being presented to the Director General, Petrus Stuyvesant, the following apostill was given upon it :

These presence doeth requiere and order Francys Doughty, and whome it may concerne, to give and graunt a quyett possession unto the present schoolmaster, Mr. Richard Mills, off the house and land, beeinge with our knowledge consent and helpe, buildt for the publyck use off the ministery, & by that meanes it may nor cannot bee given and transported for a privaet herrytadge; provyded, if hee,

¹ Riker's Annals of Newtown, pp. 46, 49, 52.

either his wyfe hath, to demaund any remaynder of meanes or wages of her deceased husbande—Mr. John Moor, laet minister of the aforementioned towne—it beeinge made and by these presence doeth order the magestrates and inhabitants off the sayde towne to give unto the heyr, what is due to them. *Actum Amst. in the N. N. lands, this 18th of February, 1661.* Was signed,

P. STUYVESANT.¹

In compliance with this order the premises were vacated, and Mr. Richard Mills, the first schoolmaster of Middleburg, entered upon the duties of his vocation.²

The third of the Long Island schools seems to have been established at Brooklyn. Mr. Stiles says:

The year 1661 will also be ever memorable in the history of Breuckelen [Brooklyn] as having furnished to the good people their first *schoolmaster*. On the 4th of July, 1661, the following petition was presented:

“To the Right Hon^{ble} Director General and Council of New Netherland:

“The Schout and schepens of the Court of Breuckelen respectfully represent, that they found it necessary that a court messenger was required for the Schepens’ Chamber, to be occasionally employed in the village of Breuckelen and all around where he may be needed, as well to serve summons, as also to conduct the service of the church, and to sing on Sundays; to take charge of the school, dig graves, etc., ring the bell, and perform whatever else may be required: Therefore, the petitioners, with your Honors’ approbation, have thought proper to accept for so highly necessary an office, a suitable person who is now come before them, one Carel van Beauvois, to whom they have hereby appropriated the sum of fl 150, besides a free dwelling; and whereas, the petitioners are apprehensive that the said C. v. Beauvois would not and cannot do the work for the sum aforesaid, and the petitioners are not able to promise him any more, therefore the petitioners, with all humble and proper reverence, request your Honors to be pleased to lend them a helping hand, in order thus to receive the needful assistance. Herewith, awaiting your Honors’ kind and favorable answer, and commanding ourselves, honorable, wise, prudent and most discreet gentlemen, to your favor, we pray for your Honors God’s protection, together with a happy and prosperous administration unto salvation. Your Honors’ servants and subjects, the Schout and schepens of the village aforesaid. By order of the same.

“(Signed) ADRIAEN HEGEMAN, *Secretary.*³

In answer to this petition, the Director and Council were graciously pleased to say that they would “pay fifty guilders, in wampum, annually, for the support of the precentor (voorsanger) and schoolmaster in the village of Breuckelen.”

Carel de Beauvois, who was thus commissioned to fulfill the multifarious duties of court-messenger, bell-ringer, grave-digger, chorister, reader, and schoolmaster of Breuckelen, is described by Riker as a “highly respectable and well-educated French Protestant, who came from Leyden, in Holland. . . . He arrived at Amsterdam, in the ship *Otter*, February 17, 1659. . . . His literary merits

¹ N. Y. Col. MSS. ix, 498, 499. Alb. Rec. xix, 18, 14. Riker’s Annals, pp. 49, 50.

² Riker’s Annals, p. 50.

³ N. Y. Col. MSS. ix, 678. Alb. Rec. xix, 194.

and acquaintance with the Dutch language soon acquired for him the situation of a teacher;" but in 1661, as we have seen, his duties were enlarged by his appointment to the office of chorister and reader. He afterwards served as public secretary or town clerk, which office he held until 1669.¹

A movement for the building of a schoolhouse in New Amsterdam is indicated by the following petition, dated Feb. 2, 1662:

* * * * *

To the Noble-great and Respected the Director General and Council in N. Netherland.

Noble-great and Respected:

Shew with all due reverence to your Hon's, the burgomasters of this city, whereas they supplicants have resolved to construct a good schoolhouse for the benefit of the inhabitants of this city—for which is required a useful and proper and well situated lot—and whereas, such a lot, just behind the house and lot where Mr. Jacob Vaneranger resides—in the Brewer street—opposite the house and lot of Johannis de Peyster is existing, so is it that your supplicants solicit your Hon. that it may please them to favor them with this lot—viz—broad along the street 30 feet—and further, in depth the half of its length, to employ this gift for a similar purpose.

* * * * *

Expecting hereon your Hon's favorable disposition, we are and remain your Hon's humble supplicants, the burgomasters of this city Amsterdam, in N. Netherland.

By order of the same, and signed

JOANNES NEVIUS, *Secretary.*

On this petition was given for apostill:

The Director General and Council deem it, for varions reasons, more proper that the schoolhouse be constructed on a part of the present church yard.² * * *

There is no evidence . . . that the schoolhouse was built as contemplated.³

We have already quoted a statement that *Ægidius Luyck* succeeded *Curtius* in the rectorship of the Latin school. He arrived at New Amsterdam in January, 1662, being then twenty-one years of age. The following communication shows his original purpose in coming, and why he was afterwards employed in a wider sphere of instruction. It will be borne in mind, in connection with these quotations, that the barbarous English is due to the translator of the "Albany Records" (Van der Kemp), whose eminent learning obviously did not include the familiarity with the English language requisite for a translator. As a teacher, minister and magistrate, Mr. Luyck seems to have maintained a good

¹ Stiles' Hist. Brooklyn, i, 116, 117.

² Alb. Rec. xx, 89.

³ Dunshee, p. 47.

reputation in New Amsterdam for some twelve or more years, and it is quite reasonable to presume that his formal introduction in the following paragraphs fails to do him literary justice:

To the Noble Lord the Director General and High Council in N. Netherland:

Shews with all humble reverence, that whereas I, undersigned, called for the private instruction of the Director General's children, sometimes have by a few inhabitants here, who saw and heard the full satisfaction—be it said without the least arrogance—of the aforesaid Hon. Lord—upon the good method of inculcating the first principles of the Latin and Greek languages, as in writing, arithmetic, catechising, and *honorum morum praxis*—with respect to his children—and even by his Hon. seriously solicited to request that I might be employed in the *Rectoratum* of this city—and his Hon. fully acquainted with the necessity of having the youth in a now rising place—and that several who in behalf of their children submitted before to troubles and expenses—under the former Doctor—now should be compelled to sacrifice all their prospects, or at a yet greater expence send their children to the *Patria*.

So his Hon. deemed it proper to employ me for this end, promising that he would advise and recommend it to the Lord Directors—so that a salary might be allowed to me.

With this looking forward I remained satisfied, returned to the school, and exerted every nerve so that the number of my disciples was increased to 20—among whom were two from Virginia and two from Fort Orange—and ten or twelve more from the two aforesaid places were expected, while others were intended to board with me.

But while I was waiting with patience for an answer from the Directors, I nevertheless did not receive it, without knowing its cause.

I offer, notwithstanding, cheerfully to continue in my service, but solicit most earnestly and humbly that the Director General, with his High and Faithful Council, that it may please them to provide me with a decent salary, so as I cannot doubt, it shall meet their approbation, as well knowing that I cannot hire on the small payment which is received from the disciples—and as a laborer deserve his wages—and if I might obtain a favorable resolution, my ardour and zeal to acquit myself well of my duty must be of course increased—by which I am encouraged to remain.

Your Hon. humble and obedient servant,

ÆGIDIUS LUYCK.

Fort Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, 30 July, 1663.

The following apostill was given by a majority of votes:

The supplicant ought first to address himself to the College of the Lords Directors of the Privileged West Indian Company, Department of Amsterdam. Done at Fort Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, 9 Aug., 1663.¹

Advice of the Director General on the request of Rev. Luyck:

My advice on the request of the Rev. Ægidius Luyck is, that I condescend to acquiesce in the majority of votes. Nevertheless, being of opinion that the instruction of the youth, with well regulated schools, is not less serviceable or less required than even church service—that the many proofs, too, of the supplicant's

¹ Alb. Rec. xxi, 257, 258.

piety, talents and diligence in instructing children, and his more than common progresses—which have been during five quarters of a year such, that they far excel the instructions of the late rector, Alexander Carolus Curtius—as will be attested by the ministers of the holy word of God, and other competent judges—to which ought to be added, that such a plan is contributing effectually to increase the renown of this place and school—and really an actual advantage, so well for our youth as for our inhabitants, as by example, the increase of the school from Virginia and elsewhere—for these and other reasons, partly already explained in that petition, it would be my advice, that aforesaid *Ægidius Luyck*, to encourage him in his service, ought to enjoy the quality and salary, which the Lords Directors of the Privileged West Indian Company, Department of Amsterdam, granted to the first Latin schoolmaster, Alexander Carolus Curtius. If not absolutely, at least with decent intercession and recommendation, under the aforesaid Lords Directors. Done in Fort Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, 9 Aug. 1663.¹

To the Noble, Great and Respectful the Director General and Council in N. Netherland:

Gentlemen—With due respect and gratitude embraces your Hons. suppliant the apostill and address to the noble, great and respectful Lords Directors, not doubting, your Hon. kind recommendations and intercessions shall obtain the desired effect, while in the meantime your Hons. suppliant finds himself once more compelled to address your Hons. and to remonstrate with due respect, that what your Hon. prudently referred to the College of the Noble Directors as Lords and Patrons of this Province, was already performed and requested in behalf of the suppliant, as evidently appears by the letters received by the suppliant from his father and mother, showing that the proposal of the Director General and Council should be answered, and that the transactions of the Director General in this case were approved, so that it—but under correction, of your Hons. wiser and further seeing judgment—in the suppliant's humble opinion in similar affairs, it would be fruitless to address themselves *de novo* to the aforesaid Directors, in an affair already left by them to the College of the Director General and Council, and of which the circumstances and necessity must be better known to your Hons. than to the aforesaid Directors without any farther orders or directions about it. Therefore renews the suppliant his humble request, that it may please your Hons. to appoint and confirm the suppliant, either absolutely or provisionally, in the solicited *Rectorate*, with the ordinary salary—or to favor the suppliant with your Hons. favorable recommendations—to go—with the vessels now laying ready to sail—on a short trip—under God's guidance to the Fatherlande, to solicit there in person, agreeably to your Hons. apostill, the desired appointment, with the salary annexed to it—so as the common proverb says—no better messenger than the man himself—for which I solicit your Hons. apostil in the margin.

Noble-great and Respectful my Lords,

Your humble and obedient servant,

ÆGIDIUS LUYCK.

Fort Amst., in N. Netherland, 16 Aug., 1663.²

¹ Alb. Rec. xxi, 259.

² Alb. Rec. xxi, 269, 270.

To the Noble, Great and Respected, the Director General and Council in N. Nether-
erland :

N. G. and Respected!—Shew to your Hons. with all reverence, the burgomasters of this city, Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, that they have been informed—as the Rev. *Ægidius Luyck* thus far exerted himself to instruct the youth—so from this place as from other places, to learn the Latin language, in which, too, they have made considerable progress, to the full satisfaction of their parents; and whereas the aforesaid Luyck, till this moment, remains ignorant if any salary for his labours is intended by your Hons. to bestow upon him—so as he now is soliciting by his petition presented this day; and whereas, on your Hons. recommendations, and our letters last year written to the Directors, the aforesaid Rev. Luyck was requested to act here as schoolmaster in the Latin language, in lieu of the late Rector Curtius, on such a salary as should be allowed to him by the Directors—of which he has no information that any conclusive step was made, so is it that we, experiencing the good instruction and discipline of our youth, deem ourselves obliged humbly to solicit your Hons. that it may please them to grant the suppliant a favorable disposition on his written request—with granting him such a salary as your Hon. in their wisdom and discretion shall deem proper. So that the suppliant's glowing zeal—to the detriment of your Hons. and that of our children—and the youth of this city with that sent hither from other places may not be cooled—but rather daily may be increased—to the renown and glory of this city—by our neighbors and other further remote places—in the hope that this our just request shall be maturely considered by your Hons., so that your Hon. shall favor the aforesaid Luyck with an ordinary and competent salary, by which we shall feel ourselves obliged, and remain

Your obedient subjects,

The Burgomasters of the city aforesaid.

By order of the same : JOANNES NEVIUS, *Secretary.*

Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, 16 Aug., 1663.¹

The preceding petition being presented and read, the following apostill was given :

The Director General and Council are, with the supplicants, of opinion that the continuation and encouragement of the Latin school is necessary—and, as it is customary in our Fatherland, that such persons by the cities which make use of them are engaged, so are the supplicants authorized by this, to allow such a salary to the aforesaid Rev. Luyck, as they shall deem reasonable—of which salary Director General and Council—provisionally upon the approbation of the Noble Directors shall pay the half. 16 Aug., 1663.

Nota : In virtue of this authorisation, the burgomasters agreed with the Rev. *Ægidius Luyck*, that he shall receive annually, in seewant [wampum], a 8 for a st. thousand *gl.*, [1,000 guilders = \$400], of which the Company shall pay the half.²

The employment of a schoolmaster in Bushwyck is recorded in the Council minutes, under date of Dec. 20, 1663:

Appeared in Council, the Commissaries of the village of Bushwyck, notifying how that they in their village were in great want of a person who would act as clerk (*voorleser*) and schoolmaster, to instruct the youth; and whereas there was

¹ Alb. Rec. xxi, 271, 272.

² Alb. Rec. xxi, 273.

proposed to them the person of Boudewyn Maenhout, from *Crampen de Lek*,¹ that they had agreed with him, viz: that he should officiate as clerk (*voorleser*), and keep school for the instruction of the youth—for which he should receive £400 in seaward, annually, besides free house rent—they solicited, therefore, that this transaction might be approved by the Director General and Council in N. Netherland, and that the Company would contribute annually something to facilitate the payment of said salary.

Which being taken in consideration by the Director General and Council in N. Netherland, the engagement of the person and the agreement with the aforesaid Boudewyn Maenhout is hereby approved, provided that he shall previously be examined by the Rev. Ministers of this city, and if they deem him competent for the task, then shall annually be paid by the Company, to render it more easy to aforesaid village to pay that salary, to the aforesaid Boudewyn, £25 heavy money.

Done in Fort Amsterdam, in N. Netherland, on the day as above.²

The village of Bergen, now of New Jersey, but formerly included within the limits of New Netherland, seems to have had a school as early as 1661 or 1662, as appears from the following petition:

To the Director General and Council residing in N. Netherland:

Shew reverently, the Sheriff and Commissaries of the village of Bergen, which they presume, is known to your Honours that before the election of the Commissaries, ye were solicited for Michiel Jansen, deceased, to be favored with the appointment of a clerk (*voorleser*), who should at the same time keep school, to instruct the youth, the person of Engelbert Steenhuyzen, who possessed the requisite abilities, so is it that the Sheriff and Commissaries now a year past proposed it to the community, who then approved it, and resolved to engage him not only as clerk (*voorleser*), but with the express stipulation that he, besides this function, was to keep school, which the aforesaid Steenhuyzen engaged to do, and did so during five quarters of a year—for which was allowed him £250 in seaward, annually—besides some other stipulations—besides the school-money—so as reason and equity shall demand—Now is it so, that the aforesaid Engelbert Steenhuyzen, whereas he has a lot and house, and a double farm, situated in the jurisdiction of the village of Bergen, is, by the complaints of the majority of the community, obliged, with the other inhabitants to provide for the sustenance of a soldier, by which the aforesaid Engelbart Steenhuyzen considers himself highly aggrieved, and so resigned his office, pretending that a schoolmaster and clerk ought to be exempted from all taxes and burthens of the village—which he says is the common practice through the whole Christian world—which by the Sheriff and Commissaries is understood can only take place when such a clerk or schoolmaster does not possess anything else, but the school-wharf [lot]—but by no means—when as a schoolmaster in possession of a house and lot, and a double farm—that he in such a case should pay nothing from his lot and lands—and the community at large is of the same opinion, as he receives his salary as clerk, and not only is obliged—to act well in his capacity as clerk (*voorleser*), but even to look out and procure himself a proper and convenient place to keep school, which he thus far

¹ A village in the Province of Holland on the river de Lek; there is another on the Menzo. (*Van der Kemp*).

² Alb. Rec. xx, 297.

neglected, and pretends that the community must effect this, so that he may keep his school in it. They cannot perceive how Engelbart SteenhuySEN can be permitted to resign his office, when he neglected to notify his intention a half year before—wherefore the supplicants address themselves to your Hon., humbly soliciting them to insinuate to the aforesaid Engelbart SteenhuySEN to continue in his service this second year—and to decline, if the aforesaid Engelbart SteenhuySEN is or is not obliged, by his possession of a lot and farm, to provide in the maintenance of a soldier, so well as the other inhabitants. Expecting upon this your Hon. resolution, which doing, remain your Hon. s't.

TIELMAN VAN VLEECK,
CASPER STEINMETS.

17 December [1663].

The Sheriff, Commissaries and Engelbart SteenhuySEN, mentioned in this petition, being summoned to appear before the Council, and being heard, parties at length, after many discussions, agreed that Engelbart SteenhuySEN shall serve his time, agreeably to the contract mentioned in said petition, so as he ought to do.¹

The employment of Johannis la Montagne, jun. (probably the person who served in the City Tavern in 1662), as schoolmaster at (New) Haerlem, is recorded as follows:

To the Noble, Great and Respected Lords, the Director General and Council in New Netherland:

Gentlemen!—With reverence and due submission shew your noble, great and respectful supplicants, subjects residing at N. Haerlem having seen and experienced, from Sabbath to Sabbath, the small success of the public congregation, and fully believing that better care might be taken of the interests of religion, and the whole worship with more decency performed, if a clerk and schoolmaster on a fixed salary could be engaged, so that the word of God might be heard, an edifying sermon read, catechising introduced, and the sick be visited, it seemed therefore to the supplicants of your Hons., whose office is to attend to the common welfare and advantages of aforesaid village . . . to be their duty to speak with the congregation on this subject, and to endeavor to persuade Jean de la Montagne, an inhabitant of that place, to save expence, that he would accept this office—by permission—wherefore they deemed it proper to address your Hon. as the patrons of the church of Jesus Christ, and humbly . . . to solicit that it might please them to consent, both to the establishment of that office and the appointment of said person for the benefit of the church of God, and the not less necessary instruction of the children—but considering . . . their present utter inability to provide a competent and decent salary, and that it was not in their power to collect more for his sustenance than 24 *schepel* corn, they are now most reverently soliciting that it may please your Hon. agreeably to their usual discretion, to contribute something for a decent salary and the better encouragement of Your humble supplicants and subjects . . .

TEURNEUR,
JOHANNES VERVEELEN.

This is I. P. the mark of JAN PIETERS.

Done in N. Haerlem, 25 December, 1663.²

¹ Alb. Rec. xxi, 439, 440.

² Alb. Rec. xxii, 9, 10

[In Council], 10 January [1664].

Presented and read the preceding petition of the Commissaries of N. Haerlem, and heard the verbal information of Mr. Johannis Verveelen, now one of the Commissaries, that it is highly necessary that some person be appointed there as schoolmaster and clerk, so is it, that Director General and Council accept for this purpose the proposed person of Johannis la Montagne, junior—and that he may officiate in both these offices with greater diligence, so shall be annually paid to him by the Company, the sum of fifty *gl.* at the rate of the Company's treasury.¹

On the 17th day of March, the Director General and Council issued an edict, requiring the practice of a custom long known in the fatherland, to wit: "the public catechising of the children."² * * * * *

The first civil ordinance in New Amsterdam enjoining this practice, was as follows:

Ordinance

Of the Director General and Council of New Netherland, for the better and more careful instruction of youth in the principles of the Christian religion. Passed 17 March, 1664.

Whereas, it is most highly necessary and most important that the youth from childhood up be instructed not only in reading, writing and arithmetic, but especially and chiefly in the principles and fundamentals of the Reformed religion, according to the lesson of that wise King, Solomon—Train up a child in the way he shall go, and when he is old he will not depart from it—so that in time such men may proceed therefrom, as may be fit to serve their Fatherland as well in the Church as in the State. This, then, being taken into particular consideration by the Director General and Council of New Netherland, because the number of children is, through the merciful blessing of the Lord, considerably increasing here, they have deemed it necessary, in order that so useful and God-acceptable a work may be the more effectually promoted, to recommend and command the Schoolmasters,³ as we do hereby, that they shall appear in the Church, with the children committed to their care and intrusted to them, on Wednesday before the commencement of the Sermon, in order, after the conclusion of Divine service, that each may, in the presence of the Reverend Ministers and the Elders who may be present, examine his scholars as to what they have committed to memory of the Christian commandments and Catechism, and what progress they have made; after which performance, the children shall be dismissed for that day, and allowed a decent recreation.

Done, Fort Amsterdam in New Netherland, dated as above.⁴

Mr. Pietersen, who was employed in 1661, as the sixth official schoolmaster in New Amsterdam, continued to serve in that capa-

¹ Alb. Rec. xxii, 11.

² Dunshee, p. 47.

³ These were Pietersen and Hoboocken. Dunshee, p. 48.

⁴ N. Y. Col. MSS. x, pt. iii, 101. O'Call. Laws of N. N. 461. Alb. Rec. xxii, 100.

city at least until 1668 or 1669. The following is taken from the New Amsterdam Records:

TUESDAY, 11 Octob., 1664. In the City Hall.

Mr. Evert Pietersen, schoolmaster of this city, represents, as his allowance from the Company is struck off, that burgomasters and schepens shall be pleased to keep him at the same allowance; to wit: $\$136$ per month, $\$125$ for board, Hollands currency, free house for school and residence, and free passage to *Patria*; offering his service and to continue the same.

Apostille:—Petitioner shall have to be patient for the space of eight days, when his petition shall be disposed of.¹

No attention seems to have been given to this petition at the time designated, perhaps on account of the pending troubles resulting, a few days later, in the surrender of New Netherland to the English. The Burgomasters' and Schepens' Court was continued, however, as appears from the records thereof, until November 10, 1774. From these records we copy further items in regard to schools, as follows:

SEPT. 19, 1665.

The petition of Mr. Evert Pietersen, schoolmaster and precentor of this city, being read & considered, requesting that he may have some proper fixed *salarium*, as he was heretofore paid his wages by the Hon'ble Company, and has been continued in his employment from that time to the present.

Is apostilled as followeth:—Whereas order shall be shortly made relative to the salary of the ministers of this city, under which the precentorship also comes, proper order shall then be made herein likewise.

8 May, 1666.

Capt. Steynmets entering demands payment of a year's rent of his house, hired to the city as a city school, due on the first of this month; amounting to the sum of $\$260$.

Petitioner is requested to wait yet a while, as there is at present no money in the chest.²

FEB. 16, 1665.

Evert Pietersen, schoolmaster and precentor, appearing and delivering an ac^e. of earned salary w^{ch} he claims from the city, requests payment and further allowance for his future services: If not, says he will leave.

Resolved to speak to the Governor hereupon.³

¹ N. Amst. Rec. v, 606.

² N. Amst. Rec. [vi], 78.

³ N. Amst. Rec. [vi], 178.

⁴ N. Amst. Rec. [vi], 486.

SCHOOLMASTERS IN NEW NETHERLAND.

As the foregoing "Annals" have been arranged chiefly with reference to the chronological order of the events narrated, we have thus far omitted many interesting personal facts which it is now proposed to present in the form of biographical notices, the whole making a consecutive list of the schoolmasters of New Netherland.

*Official Schoolmasters.***ADAM ROELANTSEN, "The First Schoolmaster."** 1633-1639.

Nothing is known of Roelantsen prior to 1633, except that he is several times mentioned as "from Dockum," a city in the northern part of Holland, and once as "van [from] Hamelwaard." There are a few documents in which he is mentioned as "schoolmaster" or "late schoolmaster" in New Amsterdam; from all of which it is presumed that he followed this vocation from 1633 to 1639. He is more frequently mentioned in connection with court proceedings and business transactions, at various times between 1638 and 1653, after which latter date we find no mention of the name Roelantsen. From the character of the suits, some fifteen in number, in which he was engaged, sometimes as plaintiff and sometimes as defendant, with alternations of success and defeat, we have reason to believe that he was at times imprudent and passionate in his language, easily provoked to quarrel with his neighbors, and guilty, in at least one instance, of unchaste demeanor. He was also either plaintiff or defendant in at least five slander suits, in one of which he was made to acknowledge that his antagonist was an honest man, and in another both parties were fined thirty-five stivers for the benefit of the poor. Three of these slander suits were in 1638 and the early part of 1639, and may have been the occasion of his abandonment of teaching, and his temporary emigration from New Amsterdam to the colonie of Renselaerswyck, where, in 1639, his name was enrolled as a settler. He soon reappears at New Amsterdam, where he incurred a second fine for slander, and also sued two of his neighbors; one for a washing bill, another for trespass in the case of damage done by cattle. These events occurred in 1640 and 1641. In 1642, he employed a carpenter to build a house according to a contract which is still on record. He likewise executed the deed of a house and lot, evidently

of little value, as it was occupied at the time by the Company's negroes. He was "weighmaster" in 1643, and obtained the patent of a lot in New Amsterdam. Nothing further is recorded of him until 1646, when he was left with four motherless children, for the management of whom, together with the property of the late Mrs. Roelantsen (Lyntje Martens), four curators were appointed, one being "Jan Stevenson, schoolmaster." In July of the same year he had two more law-suits, one of which was for slander. During the months of August, September and October, he seems to have visited Holland, and on his return was sued for the passage money of himself and his son. His successful plea in defence was, that he worked his passage as a sailor, and that his son said the prayers. A contract for lumber and the deed of a house and lot on Manhattan Island are recorded as business transactions of the same autumn. On the 17th of December he was convicted of adulterous conduct, and sentenced to be publicly flogged, and then banished; but in consideration of his children and the wintry season, the execution of the sentence was postponed, and was not finally enforced. In 1647 "he was thrown out of the tavern by order of fiscal Van Dyck;" appointed provost; and gained his cause in an action for debt against the sheriff of Breuckelen (Brooklyn.) In 1649, one Jan Appel was authorized by power of attorney to receive a lot of beavers from Jan Flodder and Adam Roelanstien. In 1653, he was a private in the Burgher corps of New Amsterdam, and, like Curtius, closed his record with a law-suit respecting pork. What further befell either him or his children, does not appear.

The foregoing facts may be verified and more fully investigated by reference to O'Callaghan's "Calendar of Dutch Manuscripts" and "Register of New Netherland;" the New Amsterdam Records, and Valentine's Manual for 1863, pp. 559-561.

JAN STEVENSEN. 1643-1648.

It has been supposed that Stevenson kept a private school, and if so, he is probably the first one of this class of whom any record occurs. The earliest mention of him, so far as we have observed, is under date of July 3, 1643, at which time a patent was granted to "Jan Stevenson, schoolmaster, of a lot north of Fort Amsterdam, for a house and garden."¹ As already stated in connection

¹ Cal. Dutch MSS. p. 867

with Roelantsen, he was appointed one of the curators of Mrs. Roelantsen's children and estate, March 9, 1646, being then designated as "schoolmaster."¹ On the 20th of July, 1647, a power of attorney was given by "Jan Stevenson, schoolmaster, to Luycas Smith, to reeeive certain moneys from the W. I. Company at Amsterdam,"² and on the 31st of August, 1648, a similar power was given to Stevenson himself, by one Schut,³ from which we infer that he went to Holland about this time. This inference seems to be confirmed by the fact that, on the 26th of October following, Peter van der Linde was appointed clerk of the church (*voorleser*) *vice* Stevenson,⁴ and further, by a statement made on the 13th of August, 1649, that "Jan Stevenson, late schoolmaster at New Amsterdam, sold a house and garden north of the fort."⁵

In view of the foregoing facts, it seems almost certain that Stevenson was an *official* instead of a *private* schoolmaster, and that he is the one referred to in Stuyvesant's communication to the "Nine Men," dated November 14, 1647 (see p. 163). If this be so, he probably officiated during the long interval between Roelantsen and Cornelissen, and is entitled to rank as the second official schoolmaster in New Amsterdam.

JAN CORNELISSEN. 164(?)–1650.

Very little is positively known in regard to the life and character of this schoolmaster, or the period of his service in this vocation. As a family name, *Cornelissen* frequently occurs in the colonial records, and there evidently were two or more persons bearing the Christian name *Jan*. A carpenter of this name settled in Renselaerswyck in 1635, and was employed by Arendt van Curler to build a house in 1643.⁶ This was doubtless a very different person from the schoolmaster, who was probably identical with one said to have come "from Hoorn," and who, in 1647, executed a power of attorney to a certain person to receive money from his (*Cornelissen's*) guardian in Holland.⁷ Deeds of two lots in New Amsterdam were given by the same person, in the year 1653.⁸ In 1658, "Rutgert Jansen was beaten by Jan Cornelissen, so that the blood flowed." It appeared in court that

¹ Cal. Dutch MSS. p. 99.

² Cal. Dutch MSS. p. 88.

³ Cal. Dutch MSS. p. 42.

⁴ Cal. Dutch MSS. p. 121.

⁵ Cal. of Dutch MSS. p. 21.

⁶ O'Call. Hist. N. N. ii,

⁷ Cal. Dutch MSS. p. 40.

⁸ Cal. Dutch MSS. p. 877.

abusive words passed between the parties, and both were fined; Cornelissen twelve guilders, the other six.¹ In 1660, Jan Cornelissen, "the Zealander," had a law-suit with Pieter Janzen, about a road across land sold to the former.² The next year (1661), Jan Cornelissen was appointed one of the three magistrates of Bushwyck,³ and in 1674 a person of the same name was plaintiff in a suit in New Amsterdam, which ended in an amicable settlement.⁴ It is possible that all these facts, excepting that respecting "the carpenter," refer to "the schoolmaster," though this cognomen is not associated with the name in any of the records cited.

It is proper to add, that several members of other families seem to have been christened "Jan Cornelissen," and that one such person, a son of Cornelis Jansen, is referred to in the Index to the Calendar of Dutch Manuscripts and in the body of that work, under the name *Cornelissen*.

WILLIAM VERSTIUS. 1650-1655.

Nothing appears on record in regard to Mr. Verstius, so far as we have observed, beyond the facts stated in the foregoing "Annals."

JOHANNES DE LA MONTAGNE, JUN^R, *New Amsterdam*, 1652; *Haerlem*, 1663.

Dr. Johannes de la Montagne, senior, was born in 1592, and came to New Netherland in 1637. By his first wife, Rachel Monjour, he had four children, of whom Johannes, or Jan, the subject of this sketch, was the eldest. Jan was twice married; first to Petronella Pickoll, by whom he had a son named Vincent, who attained the remarkable age of one hundred and sixteen years, and is the ancestor of all the La Montagne family in these States: and afterwards to Maria Vermilyea, whose three sons were named Abraham, Isaac and Johannes. There were, therefore, three generations bearing the characteristic name of Johannes [or Jan]. The second Jan, the schoolmaster, known as "junior," was one of the pioneer settlers of Haerlem, on Manhattan Island.⁵ He also held the following offices under the colonial government, in addition to that of schoolmaster: clerk in bookkeeper's office, prior to

¹ N. Amst. Rec. iii, 64, 65.

² N. Amst. Rec. iv, 162, 194.

³ O'Call. N. N. ii, 480. Brod. N. Y. p. 693.

⁴ N. Amst. Rec. vii, 117.

⁵ O'Call. N. N. ii, 21.

1655; farmer of the revenue (tavern excise), New Amsterdam and Long Island, 1657-8; fire-warden, New Amsterdam, 1658; schout-fiscal (sheriff), Haerlem, 1661; magistrate, Haerlem, 1662, 1663.¹ Judge Benson's "Memoir," read before the New York Historical Society in 1816, gives a number of interesting reminiscences of the family (pp. 32-34).

HARMEN VAN HOBBOOCKEN. 1655-1664.

In addition to the facts already given, we have ascertained that Hoboocken lost his wife about the year 1656; married Marritje Pieters, a widow, Oct. 26, 1662, and that he had children baptized as follows:

Emmetje, Feb. 12, 1655.
Johannes, Nov. 12, 1656.
Hendrickje, May 28, 1664.²

EVERT PIETERSEN. 1661-1668 (?).

We learn in regard to Pietersen, that he was made executor of Domine Welius, July 12, 1661,³ and married Aillegond Joris, a widow, for his second wife, June 16, 1669.⁴ He resided on the south side of Brewer (now Stone) street,⁵ and his estate was assessed at \$2,000 in 1674.⁶

ALEXANDER CAROLUS CURTIUS, *First Latin Schoolmaster. 1659-1662.*

We find nothing respecting Curtius, beyond the extended statement in the foregoing "Annals."

ÆGIDIUS LUYCK, *Second Latin Schoolmaster. 1662-1664.*

Ægidius Luyck came to New Amsterdam in January, 1662, for the purpose of instructing the sons of Director Stuyvesant. He was then twenty-one years of age, and, though young, bore the title of domine, or reverend; but he was merely a theological student at that time. Upon his arrival here, he took charge of the Latin school, established three years before, and which had been up to this time under the care of Alexander Carolus Curtius. At

¹ O'Call. Reg. N. N. pp. 26, 34, 41, 96, 97, 113.

² Val. Man. 1862, p. 640; 1863, pp. 564, 824.

³ N. Amst. Rec. iv, 558.

⁴ Val. Man. 1862, p. 618.

⁵ Val. Hist. of N. Y. pp. 115, 120, 325

⁶ Alb. Rec. xxii, 406.

the time of the capitulation, which occurred in October, 1664, he took the oath of allegiance to the English.¹ In 1665 he visited Holland in company with Director Stuyvesant, who went there to vindicate his course in giving up New Amsterdam to the English without resistance, and while there gave testimony at different times on the subject. Luyck returned to New Amsterdam,² and in Dec. 1671, was invited to perform service on Sabbath evenings, on account of the sickness of Domine Drisius, he (Luyck) having already officiated several times acceptably.³ He was a burgomaster in 1674, and was possessed of considerable property, being assessed at $\text{fl}5,000$ in a tax list dated New Orange, 19th February, 1674, signed by himself, among others, as one of the commissioners.⁴ He was plaintiff in a law-suit about this time, and obtained judgment for $\text{gl}652$, or $\text{fl}158$.⁵

As burgomaster, he signed the articles of capitulation at the recapture of the city in 1674. When, on the final restoration of the colony to the English, the inhabitants were required to take the oath of allegiance to the new government, Luyck, with others, refused to do so,⁶ and soon after left the country, finally, for the fatherland.⁷

In December, 1663, Luyck was married to Judith Isendoorn, who has generally been supposed to have been connected with the Stuyvesant family, but whom recent investigations prove to have been only a namesake of another person thus connected. Domine Selyns, who was gifted with considerable poetic talent, invoked the muses at this marriage festival, which has been classed among the notable ones of that early period.⁸ We are indebted to a volume of the "Bradford Club Series," entitled "Anthology of New Netherland" by the Hon. Henry C. Murphy, for the following elegant version of Selyns' Nuptial Song, which furnishes a pleasing episode to our narrative:

¹ N. Y. Col. Doc. iii, 75.

² N. Y. Col. Doc. ii, 469.

³ N. Amst. Rec. vi, 658.

⁴ Alb. Rec. xxii, 406; xxiii, 182, 188; see, also, xiv, 74.

⁵ N. Amst. Rec. vii, 175, 220, 225, 229, 230.

⁶ N. Y. Col. Doc. ii, 500.

⁷ Murphy's Anthology of N. N. (Brad. Club series), p. 171.

⁸ Val. Man. 1862, p. 772.

NUPTIAL SONG

FOR AEGIDIUS LUYCK AND JUDITH VAN ISENDOORN, MARRIED THE SECOND DAY
OF CHRISTMAS.

AIR—*O, Christmas Night.*

1. O, Christmas night! day's light transcending ;—
Who no beginning had or ending
Until He man became, was God.
Then He who ne'er before was human
Was born in Bethlehem of woman,
When nips the frost the verdant sod.
2. This richest babe comes poor in being,
More pearléd within than to the seeing
With diadem and royal power ;
He takes no heed of greater places,
But that small spot alone embraces,
Where light illumés the midnight hour.
3. A maid remaining is the mother
Of our salvation-working author,
Who so defends us by his grace,
We either death or devil fear not,
For God in Him became incarnate,
And wrestles with that hellish race.
4. This Prince,—do they desire to find him ?
They're worn-out swaddling clothes that bind him.
A manger, spread with hay, 's his bed.
His throne is higher than the highest,
Yet he among the cattle lieth.
What Him, to such a lot, hath led ?
5. And as they bring this child before them,
Luyck comes and marries Isendooren,
Standing before this Christlike crib ;
And finds, when his consent is shewn,
Flesh of his flesh, bone of his bone,
For Judith is his second rib.
6. Now seeks he God with chaste affection.
Who take before such crib direction,
Are better than this Bethlehem,
Which Christ no resting place will give ;
For they, the after-life, shall live
With Him in New Jerusalem.¹

Selyns' sportive fancy is well exhibited in a second poem in honor of the same nuptial pair. On account of the length of this production, we can furnish only extracts therefrom:

¹ Murphy's Anthology, pp. 133, 135.

BRIDAL TORCH

FOR REV. AEGIDIUS LUYCK, RECTOR OF THE LATIN SCHOOL AT NEW AMSTERDAM,
AND JUDITH VAN ISENDOORN, LIGHTED SHORTLY AFTER THE ESOPUS MURDER
COMMITTED AT WILTWYCK, IN NEW NETHERLAND, BY THE INDIANS, IN THE
YEAR 1663.

How soon the flame of war the flame of love destroys!

For Mars comes wickedly, the innocent to injure;

Nor does it Cupid please, who peace and love enjoys,
And starts, at sight of arms, to hide himself from danger.

And had he not betimes unto his wings betaken,

They sure had killed or wounded him, or captive borne
For Indian chiefs to serve, or Indian forts to work in.

But quickly sat he on the mountains of Katskil,
And thus his woe bewailed: " Domestic joys ne'er bless you,
Till Hymen tends my loves, and wedlock serves my will."

With these and like complaints the rogue his time did spend,

And then flew back again, to town and hamlet hieing.

But where he flew nor bow nor arrow had to bend;

And his vocation so with difficulty plying.

The captives, now and then, as from the grave return;
The savage monster's slain; his wife and children vanish;

His maize is all destroyed; his fort burnt to the ground;
His guns for booty ta'en; his seawan fills our coffers.

Oft through interpreters, for terms the Indians sue;
The port of peace to gain they earnestly endeavor.

When Cupid hears of this, he comes with great ado
And asks, " Who has my bow? and wails, " Where is my quiver? "

They gave his weapons back, but made him no reply,
Seeking to hush his wrath by thus his arms restoring.

He quickly seizes them, and draws his bow on high,
As if he wished to pierce some special mark above him.

The fort, New Amsterdam, is now by all possessed;
While Judith stands beneath, Luyck looks from the embrasure,
And ere they see or think, he shoots Luyck in the breast.

Nor does one shaft suffice his cov'nant-making pleasure.

" Where did he shoot? where was 't he shot? " inquire the folks.
Luyck speaks not, for he feels something his heart is boring.

As all look up at Luyck, so Judith upward looks.

He shoots a second time and pierces Isendooren.

This great commotion makes and causes, far and wide,
Re&echoings of joy. While speaks he not, the cry

Resounds throughout the land: " Joy to the groom and bride,
Joy to the married pair, and joy eternally."

" Blessings a thousand fold, attend them both," they shout,
" In body and in soul, here and hereafter flowing.

Joy fill the house within : no sorrow lurk without :
 Who gives us happiness, the same on them bestowing."
 Now we, who from this rogue, do neither child of Mars,
 Nor Venus understand, nor yet the ways of mortals,
 Save what to wedlock leads and from uncleanness bars,
 Wish them the best increase, and joy within their portals.
 May this new married pair, peace and salvation know :
 The budding hopes of Luyck and worth of Isendooren,
 Develope more and more, and thus with time so grow,
 They at the dying hour, the port of heaven may moor in.¹

RICHARD MILLS, *Middleburgh (Newtown), L. I.* 1657(?)-1661.

In the foregoing "Annals," we have spoken of the school at Middleburgh as probably the second one established on Long Island. It appears, however, from O'Callaghan's "Register of New Netherland" (page 120), that Mr. Mills, the teacher of the school, officiated in the place of the late minister, Rev. John Moore, as early as 1657; and it is not improbable that his duties of schoolmaster were assumed at that time. If this inference be correct, Mr. Mills was probably the *first* instead of the *second* schoolmaster on Long Island.

He removed to Westchester in 1661, where he became involved in a civil disturbance which led to his arrest and imprisonment. Mr. Riker says:

Richard Mills, the late schoolmaster of Middleburgh, did much to forward the revolt at Westchester,² of which place he had become a resident and the leading magistrate. Stuyvesant had him arrested, and he remained in prison more than a month, but pleading with much importunity to be liberated, "being ancient and weakly," and intending in September to sail for Virginia, the Council, on June 18, 1663, passed an order for his release, and he, some time after, left the province.³

Copies of two successive petitions by Mills for release from imprisonment, are given at length in "Bolton's History of Westchester County," vol. ii, 167, 168. We have met with nothing further illustrative of his early life or subsequent history.

ADRIAEN HEGEMAN, *Midwout (Flatbush).* 1659-1671.

Rev. Dr. Strong, in his History of Flatbush (p. 109), says of Adriaen Hegeman: "He was one of the original proprietors of the town, and was the owner of the farm lying immediately north

¹ Murphy's Anthology, pp. 187-147.

² This was an attempt to throw off the Dutch authority.

³ Riker's Annals of Newtown, p. 59.

of the property now [1842] in the tenure of Mr. Isaac Cortelyou. He was the ancestor of the widow of the late Peter Lefferts, and probably of the whole family of Hegemans now living. He was engaged as schoolmaster from 1659 to 1671." It also appears that he was a magistrate of Midwout as early as 1654;¹ was appointed sheriff in 1660,² officiated as secretary of schout and schepens' court of Breuckelen in 1661,³ and was schout, and member of a convention held at Midwout, in 1664.¹ His widow, Catelyna Hegeman, is mentioned as applying to the Commanders and Honorable Council, in 1673, for leave to proceed with immediate execution against debtors, which was granted.⁴

Dr. Strong mentions another Adriaen Hegeman, perhaps a son of the former, as schoolmaster in Flatbush from 1719 to 1741, and also mentions in his reminiscences of the Revolution, that the British "knocked out large port-holes in the house of Adriaen Hegeman, which stood on the spot where Mrs. Cynthia Lefferts is now [1842] living."⁵

CAREL DE BEAUVOIS, *Breuckelen (Brooklyn)*. 1661- (?)

A brief sketch of this person (the greater part of which, as quoted in Stiles' History of Brooklyn, has been given on pages 185, 186), and the genealogy of his descendants, will be found in Riker's Annals of Newtown, pp. 406-410. We only add the following record, from which it appears that he originally intended to teach in New Amsterdam:

FRIDAY, 27th June, 1659. In the City Hall.

* * * * *
The undersigned persons appear in Court, requesting their Small Burgher Right : Carel Beauvois, of Leiden, intending to keep school here; Puck Jensen van Oldenburgh; Antony van Aalst, all of whom have taken the Burgher oath.*

ANDRIES VAN DER SLUYS,⁷ *Esopus (Kingston)*. 1658(?)

This person wrote to Director Stuyvesant, from Esopus, Sept. 28, 1658, as follows:

* * * * *
The inhabitants here are very desirous to retain me in the service [of *voorleser* or reader], in order to explain the word of the law according to my poor ability,

¹ O'Call. Register of N. N. pp. 76, 145.

² Stiles' Hist. of Brooklyn, i, 112.

³ *Ante*, p. 185.

⁴ N. Y. Col. Doc. ii, 602.

⁵ Strong's Hist. of Flatbush, pp. 110, 148.

⁶ N. Amst. Rec. iii, 877.

⁷ O'Call. Reg. N. N. p. 182.

and to catechise the children and instruct them in reading and writing; but inasmuch as mine Heer General had spoken with them about a minister, they cannot engage me for a term of years. Therefore it is my humble and respectful petition to mine Heer General, that he would be pleased to assist me herein or otherwise, so that I may by this means and the help of God get honestly through the world.*

* * * * *

We find no record of this application in the Council minutes, nor any further evidence that he officiated as schoolmaster at Esopus.

AREN'T EVERSEN MOLENAAR, *New Amstel (Delaware).* 1661.

This person seems to have succeeded Evert Pietersen as schoolmaster at the above settlement.

ENGELBERT STEENHUYSEN, *Bergen.* 1661-1663(?)

— **REINIER, *Midwout (Flatbush).* 1661-(?)**

BOUDEWYN MAENHOUT, *Bushwyck.* 1663-(?)

We find nothing beyond the documents heretofore quoted, relating to the history of either of these schoolmasters.

ANDRIES JANSZ (JANSEN), *Renselaerswyck.* 1650.

Among the signers of the "Address of citizens of Albany to the Earl of Bellomont," dated Aug. 24, 1700,³ and on the list of freeholders of Albany in 1701,⁴ we find the name of Andries Jansz. His child, Catryntje, was baptized Sept. 8, 1672.⁵

JACOB JOOSTEN, *Wiltwyck (Kingston).* 1660-1665.

MATTYS CAPITO, *Wiltwyck.* 166(?)

We are indebted to Jonathan Hasbrouck, Esq., of Kerhonkson, Ulster county, for the following facts:

Jacob Joosten, from "Raagh ande Mesel, in Duyslant," came down to Wiltwycke (Kingston), from Fort Orange, in the fall of 1660, and opened both a "day and night school." He held catechetical exercises twice a week. He was *vooreleezer* (reader), and in the organization of the first court, May, 1661, he was appointed messenger or constable. He received from the bench two hundred guilders in sewan per year, which probably covered his office in church, for the court paid the church bills by a *morgen taalen* (land tax). At first he did not have a day school during the summer season, but about 1664 and 1665, he kept one. He, however, kept up the night exercises all the year, except during "oost tyd" (har-

³ N. Y. Col. MSS. xii, 89.

² O'Call. Reg. N. N. p. 133.

⁴ N. Y. Col. Doc. iv, 754.

⁴ N. Y. Col. Doc. iv, 940.

⁵ Val. Man. 1863, p. 781.

vest time). He married, 6th August, 1662, Ariaentje Reschuer, born in Welpe in Gelderland, a widow of Marcus Leenderse, of Fort Orange. He died childless, about 1680, and left a small estate to Gerret Cornelissen, New Kerke. I omitted in proper order to say, that he was discharged from office because of disobedience, 1665. Wm. Montagne succeeded him in the schoolroom, but that was under the English. The schoolroom was at first in the shanty which served for guard-house, church and court-room as well. The roof rested on a pole which laid in the crotch of two trees. On the erection of a court-room and church, in 1661, he moved his school to it, and stayed in it until he "quit school." He was paid by subscription of the patrons of his school, and received his pay in beans, peas, oats, wheat, hops, etc.

Mattys Capito, secretary of the Esopus, taught a school at one time, but I can not learn when. He sued Hester Donsoeise for the schooling of her daughter, 1665.

Private Schoolmasters in New Amsterdam.

ADRIAEN JANSEN VAN ILPENDAM. 1645-1660.

Mr. Valentine says:

For the year previous to his [Roelantsen's] banishment, one Arien Jansen van Ilpendam settled here and opened school.¹ Having no competitor after Roelantsen's banishment,² it is to be supposed that Van Ilpendam succeeded in making his pursuit profitable, inasmuch as children were fast accumulating in the town. The terms of tuition charged by this teacher were two beavers per annum. . . . We find, from various sources, that Van Ilpendam taught several children, who afterwards were among the leading citizens in town. He lived in this city and taught school during many subsequent years, at least as late as in the year 1660. But of his ultimate history we can ascertain nothing. It appears certain, however, that he left no descendants in this colony.³

We find, however, the following additional record in the "Abstract of Patents," in the office of the Secretary of State, from which we conclude that Ilpendam removed to Beverwyck (Albany), and lived there a number of years:

May 21, 1667—To Adriaen Jansen van Ilpendam, to confirm a conveyance to him, made March 14, 1658, by Jochem Wessels, of a certain lot of ground lying in Beverwyck, at Albany.⁴ * * * * *

We have also quoted in the "Annals" (p. 171), a court record, dated at Fort Orange (Albany), in 1660, in relation to school money.

¹ Mr. Dunshee (p. 51) mentions two private schoolmasters, "Aryaen Jansen" and "Adrian van Ilpendam," whom we conclude to be one and the same person, Adriaen Jansen van Ilpendam.

² We find no evidence that Roelantsen had been teaching for several years prior to his banishment, i. e., from 1639 to 1646; nor, as we have already seen, was the sentence ever enforced.

³ Valentine's Manual, 1863, p. 561.

⁴ Abs. of Patents, p. 162.

DAVID PROVOOST. 1647 (?).

Dr. O'Callaghan, in his "Register of New Netherland," speaking of the "Nine Men" (p. 55), says: "They held their sessions in David Provoost's schoolroom;" and on page 130, he mentions Aryaen Jansen [Van Ilpendam] and David Provoost as schoolmasters in 1647.

Mr. Provoost was a prominent citizen of New Amsterdam, and one of the "Nine Men" in 1652; but we find no other mention of him as a schoolmaster.

In the list of baptisms in the Dutch Church, we find the names of nine children of David Provoost. These baptisms occurred between February 24, 1641, and March 26, 1656.¹ He died in 1656, leaving his widow, Margaret Jellisen (or Gillisen), and several children who afterwards became prominent citizens, and whose descendants are now numerous in the State.²

JOOST CARELSE. 1649.³

We find no original record of his service as a schoolmaster, but learn that he took the oath of allegiance to the English at the capitulation in 1664,⁴ and that he had five children baptized between Sept. 15, 1658 and Oct. 14, 1666.⁵

HANS STEYN. *Licensed, 1652.*

The following record occurs in the Council minutes for Sept. 2, 1652:

On the petition of Hans Steyn, soliciting permission to keep school,—granted.⁶

It appears from an affidavit made Dec. 7, 1638, that he was, at that time, a midshipman, twenty-four years of age.⁷ He had a son, Laurens, baptized Aug. 10, 1652;⁸ was a deputy jailor, in 1664, residing, for a period, in the city hall; was taxed in 1665 for the city defences;⁹ but soon returned to Holland, as appears from an affidavit made in Amsterdam in 1666, in which his age is said to be "about forty-seven."¹⁰ It will be observed that there

¹ Valentine's Manual, 1863, p. 804.

² Valentine's Hist. of N. Y. p. 143.

³ O'Call. Reg. N. N. p. 180.

⁴ N. Y. Col. Doc. iii, 75.

⁵ Val. Man. 1863, p. 750.

⁶ Alb. Rec. vi, 8. Cal. Dutch MSS. p. 126.

⁷ Val. Man. 1863, p. 812

⁸ Alb. Rec. i, 68.

⁹ Val. Hist. of N. Y. pp. 85, 816.

¹⁰ N. Y. Col. Doc. ii, 475.

is a discrepancy of five years, in the above two statements, as to the age of Steyn, which is not reconciled by reference to the original records.

ANDRIES HUDE. *Applied for a License, Dec. 31, 1654.*

In December, 1654, this person, as already seen, applied for a license to teach school, which application was referred to the minister and consistory, but with what result does not appear, though it is assumed by Dunshee¹ and others, that it was granted, and that he is therefore entitled to be classed among the private schoolmasters of New Amsterdam. Hude was born in Amsterdam in 1608, came to this country in 1629, and married Geertruyd Boornstra, widow of Hendrick de Foreest. He was a member of the Directors' Council in 1633, 1636 and 1637; provincial secretary in 163(?) ; commissary of stores in 1637; surveyor general in 1642; commissary at Fort Nassau, on the Delaware river, in 1645 and 1647; whence he afterwards returned to New Amsterdam, and was again surveyor of New Netherland in 1654. In 1657, he returned to the settlements on the Delaware, where he held various official positions, from 1655 to 1663. During the latter year, while on his way to Maryland, he was seized with a fever and died.²

JACOBUS VAN CURLER. 1658.

This person was born about the year 1611, as appears by sundry "declarations" in the Register of the Provincial Secretary, in which the age of the deponent, as usual, was stated. He held various offices in the colony from 1633 to 1662. In 1658, as already seen, he attempted to teach without a license, and having subsequently applied for permission, was peremptorily refused upon what seem to have been technical grounds (see p. 175).

The following marriage record refers to the subject of this sketch:

Aug. 4, 1652. Jacob Coorlaar; from Nieuwercke.
Lysbeth van Hoogveldt, from Aernham.³

¹ Dunshee. p. 51.

² Valentine's Manual, 1863, p. 168. O'Call. Reg. N. N.

³ Valentine's Manual, 1861, p. 645.

JAN LUBBERTSEN. 1658.¹

Marriage record:

June 7, 1659. Jan Lubbertsen, from Edam.

Magdalena Theuris, from Voorsthuysen.²

Baptisms:

Eight children, from Dec. 29, 1660, to Aug. 25, 1683.³JAN JURIAENSE BECKER. *Licensed, Aug. 16, 1660.*

The earliest mention of Becker which we have seen, is under date of August 24, 1656, at which time, as clerk of the church at Fort Casimir on the South (Delaware) river, he petitioned for a salary, which was granted.⁴ In January, 1660, William Beeckman, writing from Altoona to Stuyvesant, states that Jan Jurianse Becker reads the sermons on Sundays.⁵ It appears from his petition, already quoted, for a license to teach, that he was at that time keeping tavern, and we find that he had then been convicted of selling liquor to the Indians and fined five hundred guilders for the offence.⁶ He, however, applied for a pardon, which was promptly granted⁷ on the ground that this was a common practice, as shown by the affidavit of other parties. He seems finally to have removed to Albany, and to have been an alderman in 1690-1692.⁸

FRANS CLAESSEN. 1660.

Mr. Valentine says:

"In 1660, Frans Claessen kept a private school in this city. He died in 1662."⁹

We find his name, however, on the list of inhabitants taxed for the city defences in 1665.¹⁰ His child, Tymon, was baptized Sept. 26, 1657.¹¹

JOHANNES VAN GELDER, *Licensed, Sept. 21, 1662.*

Marriage record:

May 19, 1686.. Johannes van Gelder and Aefje Roos, both of N. York.¹²

Baptisms:

Five children, between Feb. 20, 1687, and Nov. 17, 1695.¹³¹ O'Call. Reg. N. N. p. 181.² Val. Man. 1861, p. 649.³ Val. Man. 1868, p. 792.⁴ Cal. Dutch MSS. p. 178.⁵ Cal. Dutch MSS. pp. 209, 210.⁶ Alb. Rec. xxiv, 192.⁷ N. Y. Col. Doc. iii, 771, 772, 778; iv, 941.⁸ Val. Man. 1868, p. 565.⁹ Val. Hist. of N. Y. p. 816.¹⁰ Val. Man. 1868, p. 751.¹¹ Val. Man. 1868, p. 668.¹² Val. Man. 1868, p. 828.

